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Service Organ for American Secondary Schools

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of the National Education Association

CLEVELAND, OHIO
February 25 to March 1, 1939

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H. V. CHURCH
Executive Secretary of the Association

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TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION

of the

DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

of the

National Education Association

The twenty-third annual meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals met in Cleveland, Ohio, Saturday, Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, February 25, 27, 28, and March 1, 1939.

FIRST GENERAL SESSION

The first general session of the twenty-third annual convention of the Department of Secondary-School Principals was a dinner meeting. At 6:30 P. M. 327 guests sat down in the Ball Room of Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio. The success of the dinner meeting was due largely to the supervision of Edgar A. Miller, the local chairman of this convention, who is also the Principal of West High School of Cleveland.

With the dinner put away The West High School Choral Club, (Glenn R. Montgomery, Director), sang:

Tantum Ergo (Humming) ..... Gluck
Ave Maria ..... Rachmaninoff
Hear My Prayer ..... Arkhangelsky

A soprano solo followed:

Caro Nome from Rigoletto ..... Verdi
Mary Rocco

The Choral Club then sang:

The Echo Song (Double Choir) ..... Di Lasso
The Bells of Saint Michael's Tower ..... Knyvett-Stewart

President Paul E. Elicker, Principal of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts, introduced Mayor Harold H. Burton, who gave us a bit of the history of Cleveland together with a listing of the celebrated gardens of the city in his address of welcome.

The musical program continued:

The West High School Madrigal Singers

My Bonnie Lass She Smileth ..... German
In Pride of May ..... West
All Creatures Now Are Merry Minded ..... Bennet

The West High School Choral Club

Let All My Life Be Music ..... Noble Cain
Holy Spirit ..... Jones

The speaker of the evening, Lord Bertrand Russell, presented by President Elicker gave the address:

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

BERTRAND RUSSELL

The subject upon which I am to speak is "Education for Democracy," and I shall take it for granted that democracy is a desirable thing, assuming that it can be worked, though I should be quite willing on another occasion to argue that at length. I shall assume that we should like to preserve democratic government, that we think it is a good thing, and that we want to know how it is to be made workable.

It is subject to a challenge in our day which is surprising in view of the way that during the nineteenth century it seemed to be carrying everything before it, and therefore we have to reconsider the foundations of it and how it is to be defended.

It is quite clear that education has a very large part to play in making democracy a workable system. To start at the extreme point, you certainly cannot work a democracy when your population is illiterate; if they cannot read or write, all the machinery which is required for democracy does not work. You need a fair amount of education before democracy becomes at all possible.

But I am not concerned with this elementary portion of the matter. I am concerned rather with what kind of education is necessary if one is to avoid the pitfalls into which many democracies have fallen and which have led in many parts of the world to dictatorships.

There is a curiously difficult line psychologically to be drawn if democracy is to succeed, because it needs two things that tend in different directions. On the one hand, every man needs to have a certain degree of self-reliance, and self-confidence, a certain willingness to back his own judgment and to set forth his own point of view, to defend it, to do propaganda for it, to organize the propaganda if necessary, and so on; all the ordinary business of democratic politics implies confidence in your own judgment.

But then, on the other hand, if democracy is to be workable, a man must be willing to submit to the authority of the majority when that authority goes against him.

You find that one or the other of those two things is very apt to fail. Either men become too subservient and follow some vigorous leader into dictatorship; or they are too self-assertive, they do not submit to the majority, and lead their country into anarchy. One or the other of those opposite dangers faces democracy, and the business of education in relation to democracy is to try to produce the type of character which is willing to advocate its own opinion as vigorously as may be, but also willing to submit to the majority when it finds the majority going against it.

There are two different parts of what education has to do in this matter as in most other things. There is on the one hand the relation to character and the emotions, and on the other hand the intellectual part. The part that has to do with character and the emotions I should like to say something about, although it is in the main not a matter for schools; it is much more a matter that is determined in the home. To some extent schools can deal with it, but to a much greater extent it is determined by the home. It is so important that one cannot pass it over, but in this respect schools for parents are as much needed as schools for children.

If democracy is to be workable, the population must be as far as possible free from the fiercer emotions of hatred and destructiveness and also from the emotions of fear and subservience. Now, those are emotions which are inculcated in very early childhood. A parent of average ferocity begins with his or her child by the attempt to teach him complete obedience, and makes him either a slave or a rebel, and neither a slave nor a rebel is what is wanted in a democracy. A citizen is a different sort of person from either a slave or a rebel, but you cannot get the proper emotions for a citizen out of an autocratic and rather cruel type of parent, nor, or course, out of an autocratic and cruel type of school.

In this, by the way, I find that all the dictators of Europe agree with me. After the war, almost all the countries of Europe, for a time, had a good many free schools, with not very much discipline, not very much respect for the teacher, and so on; and one by one, all the military autocracies, including Russia, have suppressed all that freedom that there was in those schools and have gone back to a strict military regime, in which everybody stands up when the teacher comes in and the teacher is treated with the utmost reverence and all the old-fashioned paraphernalia. So that, evidently, the dictators of the military dictatorships on the Continent all agree with me about the connection of freedom in school with democracy, and one should always be willing to learn from one's enemies.

It is clear that too much discipline is not a good thing if you want to produce a population capable of democracy. If you want to get people into the habit of initiative, of thinking for themselves and not taking over their opinions from others, you must get them into the attitude of neither subservience nor rebellion against authority which is natural in the man who feels that he is part of what makes authority.

Everybody in a democracy ought to have in a greater or less degree a portion of the governmental mentality. The governmental mentality, where you do not have a democracy, is that of masters toward dependents, which is out of place in a democracy. In a democracy what is needed is equal coöperation, which involves assertion of your opinion up to a point but not further.

This brings us to a source of trouble to a great many democrats, namely what is called "principle." It is wise to scan rather skeptically most talk about principle, about self-sacrifice, heroic devotion to a cause, and so on. There is always more of what appears like heroic, unselfish devotion where the cause is bad; and if you apply a little psychoanalysis to it, you find it is not what it appears to be. It is really people's pride, or hatred, or desire for revenge, that has got itself idealized and collectivised and personified in the nation as a noble form of idealism. That is extremely dangerous. You always should apply psychoanalysis before you settle whether an emotion is good or bad, and when you find a man patriotically devoted to his country, ask yourself, "Now what is it that he is willing to do for his country?" It appears that what the Nazi is willing to do is to kill people. That is the reality of the "unselfish devotion" that he shows for his country. Killing people, if you do not say you are doing it for your country, is not considered admirable, and it does not seem to me to be any better because a lot of people do it all together. If this activity, which they all believe to be noble, is really one that does harm to mankind, you may be pretty sure that the passion which inspires it is really not a good one. If you had a kindly population, a population who in their childhood had been well-treated and happy, who had grown up imagining the world a friendly place, they would not have had that particular sort of idealism which consists in joining together to kill people in large numbers and is called patriotism. I do not admire that sort myself, and I do not think it is a sort that you would find in a people who had had a kindly upbringing. It belongs with a certain type of cruelty, of unhappiness, of unsatisfied needs, and would tend to disappear if early education were emotionally what it ought to be.

I do not want to go on too long about this part of the business, which really does not have to do so much with schools. I want as far as I can to get on to the things that are the special business of schools. The temper of intelligence that is needed to work a democracy is exactly analogous in practical life to what the scientific temper is in the intellectual life. The man of science lives in a sort of halfway house between complete skepticism and complete dogmatism. He, neither like the skeptic, says, "All knowledge is impossible," nor does he say, like the dogmatist, "I know the truth already." He is always just between these two, saying, "The truth is difficult to ascertain, in fact impossible to ascertain completely, but up to a point, to a certain degree, some of it can be found out by hard work." That is the scientific attitude of mind: Truth is ascertainable to a certain degree, but not wholly, and that only with difficulty.

You will observe that in all countries which have autocratic government, there is combined with that a creed. The followers of Hitler have one creed, the followers of Mussolini another, the followers of Stalin

another, and so on. When I say a creed, I mean a set of beliefs which are to be instilled into the minds of the young while they are too young to think, which are to be taught so constantly and persistently that pupils shall never afterwards be able to get away from the hypnotic influence of that early teaching. And the beliefs are instilled, not by giving you this, that, or the other reason to suppose that they are true; that is not the mechanism. The mechanism is purely one of parrot-like repetition, insistence, mass hysteria, mass suggestion. I say that it is not the sort of thing to be aimed at in a democracy. For by this method you teach people to believe a thing, not because there is any evidence for it, but merely because they have been taught it in a hypnotic fashion, and they cannot get away from it. When two opposite kinds of teaching of this sort coexist, they produce two crowds of people who clash, and there is no means by which you can mitigate that clash. Each hypnotized automaton feels everything that is most sacred bound up with the victory of his side, everything that is most horrible exemplified by the other side. Such fanatical factions are quite incapable of meeting together in Congress and saying, "Let us see which has the majority." That would seem altogether too pedestrian and terrestrial, because each of them stands for a sacred cause.

I do not mean to say that there are no sacred causes, but I do say you want to be very careful before you claim that your particular nostrum is a sacred cause and the other man's is something devilish and horrible. We have to have a kind of tolerance one towards another, and that kind of tolerance is much more easy to have if you think, "Well, I may after all be mistaken. This is how it seems to me, but people have been mistaken in the past. Human beings are fallible, and I am a human being. It is just conceivable that I may be wrong."

That attitude of mind is one which, of course, is not tolerated in dictatorships. Supposing you are a German, for instance, you are expected to agree that Hitler is not wrong, for that is impossible; and if you are quite certain that you are right, you will infer that you have a right to stick a bayonet into anybody who does not agree with you, and even to asphyxiate his children with poison gas. That sort of dogmatic certainty which you can get out of having a great man at the top, whom all worship, is extraordinarily dangerous. I do not think we ought to allow ourselves to have that sort of attitude; indeed it is an essential part of democracy that you should not have too much respect for anybody. I do not mean, of course, that you should despise him; but the kind of reverence that makes you think, "So-and-so says it, and therefore it must be true," is not an attitude to be commended. If we value democracy, we should wish to see a person thinking for himself, listening to the arguments, and coming to his own conclusion.

I should like to see people exposed in schools to the most vehement and terrific argumentation on all sides of every question. I should like to see this organization, the Department of Secondary-School Principals, get the most eloquent advocates of every imaginable point of view to broadcast to all the schools in the country, opposing each other, putting their rival points of view. I should like the teachers then afterward to say to the children, "Well, now, you have heard what so-and-so said. I think the time has come when you should analyze his arguments, put them down on paper and see what they come to." The children would very soon find out that the orators who had the most effect at the moment were those who had the fewest arguments when you put them on paper. If you had opposite points of view put on every kind of thing, the opposite propagandists would neutralize each other, and in the end you would get people who might be capable of listening to eloquence without being carried away by it. That is one of the most important things—to learn to be immune to eloquence. You will not be that by never hearing eloquence: you have to hear a lot. I should have all the schools listening to all the sorts of eloquence, only I should take care that it was of opposite sorts.

The whole modern technique of government in all its worst elements is derived from advertising. Advertisers are the practical psychologists of our day. They were long before Freud and the rest of the psychologists of the unconscious. They discovered that what makes you believe a proposition is not the fact that there is some reason to think it true. Someone puts up a simple statement beside a railway line, mentioning somebody's soap or pills, and the mere fact that that name is there in the long run causes you to think that it is a very good soap or that those are very good pills.

The same thing applies exactly in government. We have long known it in regard to presidents. You see a president's head on the coins and stamps, and presidents have always realized that it was very desirable to make themselves known. The modern dictators do the same thing. You see their pictures everywhere, hear their names everywhere, and it has much the same effect on you as the advertisements of the pills and soap. You begin to think, "He is a very good dictator because I hear his name so often."

As I said, the advertisers led the way: they discovered the technique of producing irrational belief. What the person who cares about democracy has got to do, I think, is deliberately to construct an education designed to counteract the natural credulity and the natural incredulity of the uneducated man; because the uneducated man has these two opposite defects: he believes a statement when no reasons are given for it, and equally he disbelieves it when reasons are given. So that you have two opposite tasks: to cause people not to believe when there is no reason, and

also to cause them to believe when there is reason. The credulity and the incredulity are exactly wrong in the natural man. I think if there is any department for original sin, it is perhaps in this direction, in the ways in which we come to believe and to disbelieve things.

I should start very young. If I had to run an infant school, I should have two sorts of sweets, if I were the teacher—one very, very nice and the other very, very nasty. The very nasty ones should be advertised with all the skill of the most able advertisers in the world. On the other hand, the nice ones should have a coldly scientific statement, setting forth their ingredients and consequent excellence. I should let the children choose which they would have. I should, of course, vary the assortment from day to day, but after a week or two they would probably choose the ones with the coldly scientific statement. That would be one up. I should go on in the same way all through.

Suppose there was a question of an excursion to some place in the country. I should have on the one hand marvelous advertisements with colored posters about some place that was very unpleasant, and about another place I should have just maps and contour lines and statements as to the amount of timber in the neighborhood, but put in the driest language conceivable. Of course, the place advertised in dry language should be nice, and the other nasty.

I should do the same in teaching history. I should take them through great controversies of the past. I should let them read the most eloquent statements in favor of positions that nobody now holds. For example, before the American Civil War, the Southern orators—who were magnificent orators—made the most moving speeches in defense of slavery. If you read those speeches now, you almost begin to think it must have been a good thing. I should read them all kinds of very, very eloquent defenses of views that nobody now holds at all, such as the importance of burning witches.

When they had grown a little impervious in that way, I should give them rhetoric in the present, similar speeches in favor of current controversial opinions. I should give it to them always on opposite sides. I should read to them every day, as a sort of *bonne bouche* to their history, what is said about a labor dispute first by *The New York American* and then by the *Daily Worker* so long as the labor dispute lasts, or whatever question is on. I should say, "What do you suppose has happened?" In time, perhaps, they would learn to infer the truth from these opposite statements.

The art of finding out from the newspapers what it was that happened, is a very difficult one indeed, and one that every democrat should be taught. It is very instructive to read newspaper accounts when you have been an eye-witness of an occurrence. I should try as much as possible

to get pupils to have the experience of seeing first of all what did happen, and then what was said to happen by the opposite sides, and so to learn that the truth is usually about in the middle.

There is a great deal to be done in this direction if people are to be capable of understanding how to judge a political question. I do not want to teach people one opinion or another opinion; it is not the business of education to do that. The business of education is to teach pupils to form opinions for themselves, and they need for that purpose to be rather impervious to eloquence and propaganda, to be on the lookout for the things that are intended to mislead, and to be able to pick out what really is an argument and base themselves on that.

I should go through, for instance, the history of past wars and let them read the propaganda on both sides and see how extraordinary far from the mark it really was, how completely unreal. I should let them occasionally have a newspaper of some period during the Great War. I do not know whether any of you in recent years have had occasion to look up any newspaper of any day during the Great War. If you had, you would be astonished. You would think, those of you who are old enough to have lived through that time, "Dear me, did I really read that at the time and think it quite sensible?" Because as you read it a sort of hot blast of insanity comes out of the page at you. You cannot believe that we were really all collectively in a state of excitement in which one cannot see things right. Part of the business of education for democracy is to try to prevent people from getting too much excited; but it is a difficult art, because you do not want, on the other hand, that people should be without emotion.

I want to safeguard myself at this point. You cannot get any kind of improvement in the world, or any kind of good life, without a basis in the emotions. But you have to be sure that that basis is the right one. I think that the only sort of emotional basis is what I should call kindly feeling, that is to say a wish, not only in regard to your friends and the people you know, but in regard to mankind at large, that as far as possible they should be happy, enlightened, able to live a decent sort of life. When you find other ideals, as you very often do, strongly recommended in terms that sound like lofty morality, such ideals as national greatness, the victory of this or that cause, or any kind of thing that involves the suffering, the destruction, the misery of some large group of mankind, then say, "That is not an ideal that I care for or that any democrat can care for, because it is of the essence of democracy that we think every human being counts alike."

We are not content with a purpose that suits one group at the expense of other groups. Therefore, any narrow patriotism, however necessary it may be at the moment in practice, is not a thing that you can accept as

an ideal. The emotion that must inspire our purposes is an emotion of pain in the suffering of others, and happiness in their happiness. That is the only emotional basis that is any good.

Given that, you then want a belief that it is possible to make human life happier. Many people are so pessimistic and so miserable that they feel as if that were impossible, as if it was no use to struggle; the world, they think, is just dreadful, and we cannot do anything about it.

I cannot and do not take that view. Whatever the immediate future may be, and I think it may be very nasty, I do not feel any doubt that human beings will emerge into a world very much happier than any that we have known in the past, a world in which ordinary men, women, and children will be finer than they were before, freer, healthier, less destructive, and more kindly.

If we had any sense, we could now with our existing knowledge have a world in which practically everybody would be happy. It is only the hatreds between groups that prevent that, and those hatreds between groups are the sort of thing that I think our education for democracy ought to undermine both emotionally and intellectually. We ought both to get people into that kindly frame of mind where they will not feel violent hatred of another group, and also into the intellectual state where they will see how absurd the arguments are in favor of acting against other groups.

I think that our education has in some respects been a good deal to blame; more in other countries than this, but in this country too, in the fact that there are certain beliefs which are very convenient to the Government, very convenient to the powers that be, but not perhaps rationally defensible. Those beliefs have been encouraged in schools: the whole set of beliefs that make up patriotism, respect for the flag, and I don't know what all. The flag may be all right in its place, but consider what it means as an emotional stimulus in education.

There have been many great Americans, and one is very glad there should have been. But it is just as good a thing that there should be great Frenchmen, Germans, or Russians. The fact that they have been Americans is nothing to the purpose, but when you get them collected under the flag, it is this irrelevant characteristic that is emphasized. Moreover, it is not quite the same American that the flag suggests whom you would admire otherwise. You might admire Edison and Burbank, but when you see the flag they do not come into your head; it is Sherman and Grant. The flag is essentially concerned with the militant aspect of one's country.

In the world we live in, perhaps countries may have to have a militant aspect, but for my part I think Edison and Burbank and Emerson and Thoreau are something more to be proud of than Sherman and

Grant, and therefore I do not think that the collecting of children's minds around the flag is a good thing.

To take another point: we naturally, all of us who have classes to teach, find it much more convenient if we are respected. It is much easier to keep discipline, and also, since we are there to teach, we want to be believed when we speak. There is a certain inconvenience in a class of children who all think for themselves and who regard you as no better than anybody else.

Therefore we are all, in so far as we are engaged in teaching, much tempted to set ourselves up as little gods. It is much more convenient if we do, but it does not really help to educate the child except in so far as it is necessary in order that the business of education should be carried on.

I remember reading a description of Tolstoy's schools. When anybody except Tolstoy taught in them, there was pandemonium, but when Tolstoy taught them there was absolute silence, absolute respect. This seemed rather astonishing until it was found that if any noise was made, he got into such a fury and rage that every child cowered with terror.

So that you do have to have enough respect for the teacher to enable the business of teaching to be carried on. But that is a comparatively small amount, and I do not think you want to set up to be certainly right or to discourage any kind of intellectual independence in the children. That has to do not only, of course, with the teacher. It has to do with the whole of the existing structure of society, with all the powers that be. We should take care not to inculcate unthinking respect. Respect should be thinking respect. It should be based upon some kind of recognition that so-and-so really has some merits, and not simply upon tradition or pomp or a hypnotic effect. You in this country suffer much less in that respect than most countries do; but still you cannot very well help it where you have a long tradition. You tend inevitably to have more respect given to certain things than those things deserve.

Children are willing enough to give respect. Those who seem not to be willing to are those who have seen through demands to enlist their respect for things that did not deserve it, and have thus acquired a sort of debunking attitude—not believing anything. But if you do not try to impose upon the young, if you do not try to deceive them, but let them find out for themselves what they respect, put things before them that are worthy of their respect and let them choose, my own experience is that they are quite as willing to respect things as they ought to be, and that it is not necessary to inculcate an artificially respectful attitude, which, when it goes beyond a point, is inimical to thinking.

One knows how different it is at the university from what it was before. A university teacher who has to teach clever people never expects from them the very faintest respect. He takes it for granted that

they will occasionally catch him out as being wrong, and that he will have to admit it. We should try to have as much approach to that attitude in earlier teaching as is compatible with the actual business. You want to encourage independence, initiative, thinking for themselves, and the realization that anybody may be mistaken. You do not want to have them think what you say, just because you say it, must be right. After all, it probably isn't. Of course, if you state a mere fact, it will be right; but if you state an opinion, you should realize that, if you take the opinions held by people three hundred years ago, you will find very, very few that you would think right now, and in the same way there must be very few of our opinions now that are right.

I have said very little about the non-intellectual aspects of the matter, but I should like to end with a few words about that, because while I have said that what I want is as far as possible something like the scientific attitude, I do want also besides that some capacity to feel what are the ends of life and what makes life important to human beings.

That is a matter for the cultural side of education. I do not think that is to be obtained merely by knowing facts. It is to be obtained in different ways by different people. Many get it from music or poetry. Some people get a great deal from astronomy. I sometimes think that if people would reflect upon the size and antiquity of the stellar universe, they would perhaps feel that some of the controversies upon this rather insignificant planet are not so important as they seem to some of us, and perhaps that might take a little of the acerbity out of our disputes. We need negatively the realization that our disputes are not so important as they seem, and positively, through art, through music, through poetry, and so on, the feeling that there are things really valuable that human beings can enjoy and achieve, and that these are different things from the ones that come in the clash of politics, not the sort of things that happen on a battlefield, but individual things, things that happen in your own mind, important feelings, emotions, and insights. All these things are to be kept alive, things not to be sacrificed to the collective, organized life of the community. That life is necessary, it has to go on, but it is not the highest part of our life. The highest part of our life is more analogous to what the religious teachers have always spoken of. It is something more individual. I think perhaps that is the deepest quarrel I have with the people who believe in the corporate state and all the rest of it, that they seem to think that our highest life is in collective activities, and I do not believe that at all. I think our highest life is something more personal, and that where we coöperate in large groups, although coöperation is immensely important and necessary, it is not as a rule with the very highest part of our nature, because we all of us reach our best in somewhat differ-

ent things, so that where we all work together it is hardly possible that we can each of us reach quite the best that our nature is capable of.

I think all education ought to bear that in mind and ought to be very conscious of the possibility of individual excellence in the future. For that reason much the most important of all qualifications in a teacher is the feeling of spontaneous affection toward those whom he teaches, the feeling with each one of them, "This is a person with certain capacities, a person who can do certain things, who has a right to his place in the world," and not "This is a soldier in the army," or "This is material for propaganda," or "This is one of the persons out of whom I can make a great power which can do this, that, or the other." That is not the way to use the material which you teach. The right way is one much more analogous to the religious way, which realizes that each human being has in himself certain excellencies and certain possibilities, and that the business of education is to bring those out.

SECOND GENERAL SESSION

Monday, February 27, 1939

The second session of the convention met in the Ball Room of Hotel Cleveland. At 2:05 P. M. presiding officer John E. Wellwood, Principal of Central High School, Flint, Michigan, and member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, introduced Dr. Edgar G. Johnston as follows:

CHAIRMAN WELLWOOD: If the young people of to-day are to lead a good life to-day and to-morrow, it means that they must establish something in the way of a philosophy of life. That philosophy of life doesn't necessarily need to be a stated or written one, but at least it must be an attitude toward the problems which they are facing, and which they are likely to face in the future.

If a philosophy or an attitude is to be established it means that those young people must have certain experiences, out of which to build a philosophy.

If we are going to have experiences, it means action, because only through action does experience come.

If we are going to have action, and if that action is going to lead to an adequate philosophy of life, that action must be the right kind of action.

Action and experience may be educative, they may be miseducative, but they are never non-educative. And it is with that general thought in mind that this Department two years ago appointed a Committee on Student Activities. The chairman of that Committee was Dr. Edgar G. Johnston, the Principal of the University School in Ann Arbor, Michigan, at the present time on leave of absence, wandering about the country—I can assure you not aimlessly—in the interests of the coöperative study of secondary-school standards.

Dr. Johnston is going to speak to us for a time this afternoon and while he is speaking I hope that you will keep in mind that there is a group of young people sitting here on the front row who will probably be taking notes and be ready to make comments.

I do not know whether they are going to tear his address to pieces or whether they are going to add to it, illustrate it, illuminate it, or what they will do to it, but I think we should all keep in mind that these young people are thinking while Dr. Johnston is talking.

Now I shall present Dr. Johnston, who will present "The Aim and Object of an Activity Program." Dr. Johnston. [Applause]

THE AIM AND OBJECT OF AN ACTIVITY PROGRAM

Dr. Edgar G. Johnston

Professor of Secondary Education and Principal of University High Shcool, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan

Mr. Chairman, fellow-members of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, and distinguished guests. In the event that any of you in the back of the room cannot hear me I shall appreciate it if you will raise your hands, and I shall raise my voice.

The extra-curriculum activity movement as an organized consideration of the program in the school has reached its majority; it has come of age, for it is just about twenty-one years ago that the Chairman of the panel which you are to hear later this afternoon, and the acknowledged dean of the extra-curriculum movement in America, Dr. Fretwell, organized the first course in extra-curriculum activity.

If, in the discussion that follows, I seem to dwell especially on faults or shortcomings, it is not without recognition of the distinct values which the extra-curriculum program has brought to our schools. May I rather hope to play the role of a friend of the family who is interested in the growth of this young Mr. Extra-Curriculum Activity, but who is open-minded to see those factors which may hinder his most effective development.

In the attitude of teachers, administrators, the public, to extra-curriculum activities—well perhaps mainly just of teachers and administrators, for I think the public has in general been more alert than we to possibilities—in the attitude of teachers and administrators, I think we can discern three observable attitudes. The first was one of opposition, that extra-curriculum activities was something that interfered with the real business of the school—learning lessons. That attitude was represented by a comment I heard in the course of an address by a distinguished scholar and gentleman of the old school, who had occasion to refer to what we speak of as extra-curriculum activity. His comment was, "Extra-curriculum activities. A new-fangled term for what in my day was known as dissipation." I think fortunately the point of view he represents would be found by very few in our schools to-day. However, if activities have become respectable they have still been tolerated rather than encouraged by some teachers, some schools, some administrators.

That attitude I think can be found on the part of those who rigidly insist that pupils must pass in their regular school work if they are to be permitted any experience in the extra-curriculum program. To them extra-curriculum activities are a sort of scholastic ice-cream that is to be given only to those who have eaten their carrots and spinach, even though some of them may be allergic to spinach.

You are all familiar with Dr. Fretwell's famous two theses, I shall not repeat them to you, but certainly the hope of the extra-curriculum pro-

gram has been that it would develop citizens of a democracy, who would be better able to perform their duties, personalities richer in creative activity, individuals who are more sensitive to social values and who have more developed ability.

I believe that failure to achieve what we might reasonably expect the extra-curriculum program to do in our schools may be assigned to certain administrative weaknesses, and that to us particularly who are the administrators of schools there are some very definite considerations we need to give our most earnest attention. I shall point out some of these weaknesses as they seem to me, in the administration of the program.

The first of these is that many schools have adopted the forms of an activity program without any real understanding by teachers and pupils of the function it should perform. We have had hastily introduced examples of student councils which very frequently have been as hastily removed when without consideration of what they were to do they failed to achieve any real educational purpose.

We have had top-heavy club programs, started in schools which then have fallen by their own weight.

We have had home rooms which were home rooms in name only and were mainly an administrative routine.

Too frequently we have had the copying, in rather slavish imitation of something that was being done some place else, and has seemed to be effective there, without asking what the purpose was it was expected to serve, and consequently how it could be made to perform that function.

Several years ago I had occasion to participate in a state survey in another state. We visited forty-two high schools in that state. In all of them we found home rooms, but we found only one activity common to the home rooms and that was taking attendance. Actually at one of these schools they herded the pupils together in what they called home rooms, for five minutes in the morning, for a roll call; at twelve o'clock they brought them back for three minutes to see that they hadn't escaped; at one o'clock they came to the home rooms again, and again were checked in for five minutes, and again at four o'clock there was another three-minute round-up to be sure that all survivors might be checked up and sent home for the night. Certainly that was no home room in any real sense.

The second point I should like to make is that we have really been afraid of democracy; we have lacked faith in the ability of pupils to plan intelligently, to work coöperatively, to make decisions and to accept responsibilities, and that in my judgment is the most crucial problem and the most critical failure of activities programs as they have been carried out in our schools of to-day.

We are living in an age when democracy is on the retreat throughout the world, when whole nations are regimented into servile obedience to a self-appointed leader. We need to develop the ability to choose leaders wisely, and one chooses leaders wisely only by having experience in choosing them and by having the opportunity to make mistakes and to learn by those mistakes.

We have been so afraid that pupils would make mistakes in judgment that we have not allowed them to make judgments, so afraid that they would choose the wrong leaders to represent themselves that we have picked their leaders for them, and I have observed this year, I have had an opportunity of visiting a good many schools throughout the country, I have seen some excellent things in the activities program, but repeatedly it has seemed to me the thing that stood out was the failure to realize how much responsibility pupils really are able to take, and the examples which have shown that recognition and that confidence may have been the high lights in the activity program in the American school.

I was interested in the question which was presented by a newly elected student council president to his principal. His question was: "Well now as student council president just how much authority have I?"

The answer of the principal, and I think a sound one, was, "Just as much as you want, and are willing to take responsibility for."

It seems to me we need to recognize that it is not a case of student or faculty domination of a school, but of student and faculty participation in administering this very complex, dynamic organization which is the modern secondary school, and that means a willingness on our part to give just as much responsibility as pupils are ready to take, and that means, more often than we are ready to recognize in them.

The third point I should like to make is that participation in the extra-curriculum program has been limited to too few pupils. Sometimes by this scholastic limitation I mentioned earlier, by insisting that the pupil who has not passed in algebra, or in English or in Latin may not be a member of a club or run for an office or participate otherwise in the school.

To my mind if we really believe the values we have claimed for the extra-curriculum program, if we really think that this is preparation for citizenship, in learning to do by doing, it would be just as illogical for us to say to John Smith, "You may not take English, you failed in algebra last semester." If we think of these as complementary parts of a total educational program of the school we need to think of them in terms of what may be most significant for each individual pupil, and for many pupils in many schools to-day I believe the most significant educational experience they are receiving is that found in what we call the extra-curriculum activities of the school.

And then we have failed to provide for distribution of experience, we have allowed too frequently a small number of the more capable to assume the greater part of the extra-curriculum opportunity the school provides. Let me illustrate: in a school I visited once there was an excellent use of the public address system. A student news broadcast was given, it was a semi-weekly event, I believe. The student who presented this in very well-chosen words, gave the news first of the school, then of the local community, then national news, and then international news, with appropriate comment. It would have done credit to many of the commentators of our national networks.

The next day there was an assembly. The assembly contained among other phases it had a presentation of a newly designed school seal, very effectively done, in a brief and fitting series of remarks, by a student, with acceptance of the seal on the part of the student body; the student who made the acceptance speech was the same one who had done the broadcasting the day before.

Then there followed a play, an excellent play, well presented, one which demanded a good deal in the way of dramatic ability, particularly by the leading male part, and that leading part was played by the same boy who had made the student broadcast the day before, and had accepted the seal a few minutes before the play.

A few years ago I had occasion to analyze the participation of pupils in activities as represented after their names in the senior annual. In one school which had a very extensive activity program of which it was proud, one pupil had been, as indicated in this list of honors following his name, the president of the student council; the president of the senior class; the colonel R. O. T. C.; captain of the football team, lead in the senior play, et cetera, et cetera. Actually there were for the four years he had been in the school, forty-two designations after his name, of something of enough importance that he wanted to have it included in his history.

However, in that same school, in that same senior class there were nineteen per cent of the student body of the seniors for whom nothing was presented, they had had no experience of the extra-curriculum type of sufficient importance to put it after their names.

Too frequently a school doesn't even know how widely this extra-curriculum experience is being distributed in the school.

The next point I would like to emphasize is that the competitive aspects of the program have been over-emphasized. The winning of contests has long been a major consideration in athletics, and we have had sometimes the contrast, the division of the student body into gladiators and bench-warmers.

There is certainly a very definite degree in which this over-emphasis on winning of contests vitiates the very purpose that the athletic program is intended to carry out, and has results which are undesirable both for the spot-lighted participant—small number of participants—and for those who may obtain a distorted sense of values through over-emphasis on winning as being the thing that counts on the part of the student body.

I have been very glad to see the efforts which have been made especially by some of our state principals association groups to make an intelligent study of contests in the various fields, not only in athletics but in the field of music, in the various other fields into which this competitive idea has developed, make a study of those and to attempt to restrict those in such a way as to get the legitimate values which competition may present.

Certainly in addition to the limitation which comes in limiting the activity in speech, in dramatics, in music activities to those who are competent to appear and to win for a school, it may deprive those who most need the kind of experience that that activity presents, and may also even conflict with the purpose of the activity itself. Beating somebody else has nothing to do with the appreciation of a symphony or with an understanding of socialized medicine, and the sooner we recognize that fact and focus our attention on the real functions to be performed by the activities, the sooner will we provide the distribution of activities which is to be desired. Particularly, as Bertrand Russell brought out so clearly in his address of Saturday evening, it is critically important for us in democracy to develop the ability to coöperate, to focus our attention on those points we have in common and not upon those points in which we are attempting to be superior to someone else.

Then the activity program has too frequently been extra—unrelated to the curriculum program of the school. A recognition of the common aims and relationships which both of these phases of the program have as part of the total educational program of the school, will result in improved contribution from each.

I believe it was L. P. Jacks, the English writer on educational topics and a former headmaster of a well-known English school, who said apropos of education and recreation, "To the wise individual there is no dividing line between his education and his recreation, his work and his leisure, his vocation and his avocation; many times if you ask him whether he is working or playing he could not tell you which. To himself he seems to be doing both; enough if he does it well." Something of that spirit has carried over into the curriculum where there has been developed a vital relationship between the extra-curriculum activities and the curricular activities, and where the two have been viewed as common parts of a larger educational program to which both have a contribution to make.

And then, there has been no consistent effort to evaluate activity in terms of the fundamental objective we have set up for them. We have been content too often in a rather aimless way to continue activities because we had them. Well, we have always had a Latin Club, for instance, we have always had an assembly program; we have always done this or that, and without measuring what the real returns are in terms of the things that we say the activity program should present to the school.

I remember on the old farm where I grew up, that we had a raspberry patch which was tended rather carefully for some years. One of the chief jobs was cutting out the canes. Each fall you would cut out the old, dead canes, and that made room for the new shoots to come up, and if you failed to do that, as eventually when this was allowed to lapse, we did, it developed from a well-cultivated and well-tended patch into a bramble patch in which it was almost impossible to get in, and to get the fruits that were there. I think sometimes our activity programs have been pretty much like that, where dead wood has been allowed to continue without any real consideration as to whether it was performing functions or what the values that might be performed were.

Certainly the improved personnel records and functional consideration of the curriculum in terms of the experiences that pupils have under the auspices of the school has done much to focus our attention upon the objectives. I believe that one of the major developments to be achieved in extra-curriculum activities is that of devising and utilizing effective means of measuring improvement.

If I may mention, then, two more major weaknesses, it seems to me the teacher training institutions have failed to provide appropriate experiences for prospective teachers to prepare them for responsibilities in this field.

We have seen that there was adequate preparation in mathematics, we have outlined what the major should be in Latin or in English; we have seen to it that there was practical teaching provided in each of these lines.

Fortunately, as a beginning of this development we have seen extra-curriculum courses coming in, particularly in our summer school sessions. Usually they have been a matter of teachers who have been out teaching coming back to find out something about the activity into which they have been thrown as they went into the schools. But if we believe that we learn to do by doing, what our whole extra-curriculum philosophy has told us, it certainly applies to teachers who are being prepared for participation in teaching. You do not learn to swim until you get into the water, and the extra-curriculum experience of the teacher does need some opportunity for controlled supervised effective participation.

At a recent meeting of a state principals' association in the committee report on teacher training, I thought the most significant point that was made by the chairman for that committee was that our teachers come to us well trained in their subject fields, but they do not know how to run a home room, they know nothing about sponsoring a club, they are not prepared to take over the responsibility for the various activities, and we have to train them for that after we get them in the schools. I believe that all the way through this training has to be a coöperative thing, and some type of interneship in the whole of the program is the method that will provide for the most effective preparation.

And then, finally, duties in relation to activity program have not received adequate recognition in considering the teacher's load, either by administrators or by the community.

I am not suggesting that for every club sponsorship a class should be withdrawn from the teacher's load; I am suggesting that we do the same thing for the teacher that we do for the pupil in an intelligence guiding program, that we think of his total contribution to the school and that we come to get the public to recognize what this total program of the school is, and to set up what is a reasonable standard for that in terms of its effectiveness.

Well, now to get back to this young adult, Mr. Extra-Curriculum, who has just reached his majority. I may seem to have been very critical here and not to have had a very optimistic view; I think that would be a mistake. I do not want to give the impression that I think that his weaknesses are constitutional, that he has developed hardening of the arteries, that there is no hope. I do think that there is need for intelligent attention to a reasoned regimen, to an intelligent diet, and particularly that we need to focus attention on those schools, on those types of organizations and there are many of them, that are doing in some phase of this program an effective and a stimulating, and an active job, and particularly we want constantly to be asking the question: what is this activity for? And: Are we achieving that? Are we developing self-reliance, the ability to make decisions as independent members of a democracy, living in a democracy to develop creative ability on the part of youth?

The best answers to this are to be given by the youth themselves who are after all the ones who provide the real dynamics of the activity program, and who are the real evaluators of that program.

So I think it is fortunate for the program here this afternoon that it does include as its major phase, the discussion of activities by pupils themselves.

We have long known of the Cleveland high schools as representing outstanding development in the publications, in the student participation

in school control, and in other phases of the activity program. Those of us who heard their musical organization Saturday night were certainly thrilled by the performance they presented there. I have a feeling you are going to be equally thrilled in hearing them discuss this topic to which I have provided just the curtain raiser. [Applause]

DISCUSSION

CHAIRMAN WELLWOOD: We have just listened to an appraisal by an appraiser; we are now to listen to an appraisal by a group of participants.

It is not my job to present these young people to you, but to present the leader. Personally I am hoping to get just a little bit of personal satisfaction out of it. Sixteen or seventeen years ago I enrolled in a course in Extra-Curriculum Activities in Teachers College in Columbia. The second day the class met, the teacher in charge of the class called upon me to stand up and introduce all the people who sat in the same row with me, and tell where they had come from. My face was considerably red. I am hoping to-day that Dr. Fretwell will have to take his paper out and look at it when he is introducing this group of young people to you. [Laughter]

DR. ELBERT K. FRETWELL (Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City):

Ladies and gentlemen, since we believe in the plan of participation of these pupils, I shall get around Mr. Wellwood. Instead of doing the work for my classes, I insist that they do their own work; therefore each individual is going to introduce himself or herself. [Laughter and applause]

We had not planned on such a large audience, although we had expected one almost as goodlooking; as a result we had not paid any attention to this public address system, for which we have just three outlets. Just how we shall manage these we do not know. This affair is not entirely new to this dozen young people that we have here, but before we go any further I will ask each of you to introduce yourselves, give your name, and the school from which you come.

Edgar Becker, representing the Student Council of John Marshall Senior High School.

Mildred Guilfoyle, representing the Student Council of John Hay High School.

Joe Boydos, representing John Adams High School.

Roy Unger, from Cleveland Heights High School.

Russol Myers, representing Patrick Henry Junior High School.

Evelyn Lawry, Garfield Heights High School, Junior and Senior.

Richard Little, of Empire Junior High School.

Ray Dottore, Audobon Junior High School.

Lois Hainley, West High School, Junior and Senior.

Tim Gunn, Lakewood High School.

Nina Panariisi, representing Collinwood High School, both Junior and Senior High School.

Ray Willson, of East Technical High School.

DR. FRETWELL: For fifteen years here in Cleveland they have had the Student Leaders' Conference. This Conference has been carried on by the lady to whom we are greatly indebted for bringing to us this afternoon, some members of this Conference—Miss Ethel Parmenter of East Technical High School—stand up and take your bow, Miss Parmenter—she has done all the work. [Applause]

Now we will do our best with the limited facilities of the public address system. Naturally, we cannot talk back and forth quite as much as we would if we could panelize with a relatively small group.

To give you the back-stage side of this: I had the privilege of meeting with most of these young people yesterday afternoon. We did not at any time rehearse anything we are going to say. I do not know what they are going to say. You don't know what they are going to say. But this we know, we emphasized the fact that we'd tell the truth as we saw it, fearing God but little, and man not at all, and that we would be courteous about it, but saying the kind of things they have to say.

May I, in their behalf, say one other thing?

Dr. Johnston of course could generalize from a wide experience. You know, you really have to become a college professor of education, to generalize widely from a minimum of material. [Laughter] We will begin with home rooms, then progress to student councils, clubs, et cetera, et cetera, in that fashion adjourning by four o'clock. We hope, if we can, at the end of the time to give opportunity for questions from the floor which the pupils will have the privilege, if they care to, of answering, and saying what they think about.

We are not going to have set speeches at all. I am going to ask questions and we will take them up here and there, and get at the matter of the answering of those particular questions. You came here of your own accord. [Laughter] You recognize the conditions under which we work; the size of the hall, and all who have conducted or been members of panel discussions have a lively appreciation of this particular problem. We would like to work without the public address system; we know that we cannot make you hear, therefore with only three of these little microphones we are going to go at it in this particular fashion.

Now we shall present a good deal of concrete material, undoubtedly, but (how do we do it in this school, how do we do it in that,) to the end that we may generalize a bit and say what we think of it in the end.

I learned to call cattle in a neighboring state, and I can usually make them hear if they are long-horned enough. [Laughter]

We shall begin with home room.

I shall talk without the "mike," so that they may have them freer to use; if I seem to holler don't think I am just doing it to enjoy myself—I am, but don't think that. [Laughter]

We have twelve schools here, not just East Technical High School, but twelve of them.

Which ones of you come from Junior High Schools?

. . . three raised their hands. . . .

All boys as it happens in that case.

How many of you come from six-year schools?

. . . four raised their hands. . . .

How many come from three-year schools?

. . . four raised their hands. . . .

How many of you come from schools that have home rooms?

. . . all raised their hands. . . .

One hundred per cent. Isn't it lucky we are meeting in Cleveland and in this general neighborhood?

I am going to begin with Ray Dottore; he is from a Junior High School. Tell us, Raymond, a little about the Junior High Schools—what time of day you have your meeting, how long you have it; what goes on in a home-room period—take two or three minutes if you want to.

RAYMOND DOTTORE: Our home room meeting starts at nine-forty-five and ends at ten-fifteen. Between that time we have a broadcast from our principal, and he tells us of lost books and all such things. [Laughter and applause]

We are organized upon a homogeneous basis; we have a strong competitive spirit; we have attendance, and inter-room games, and ticket sales, contributing to community fund, and subscribing to our school paper.

DR. FRETWELL: Well, let's take the other Junior High Schools—this fellow was sick yesterday, he is just out to-day for the first time. Tell us a little about yours.

RICHARD LITTLE: Our home room starts at eight-ten and lasts until ten minutes to nine in the morning, and during this time on Monday the bulletin and any other special notices are read, announcing club meetings and student council meetings. During home-room periods the rest of the week, home-room programs are held, and there is a special bulletin that comes out at the beginning of the term, which tells the different home rooms what programs they are supposed to have.

In the bulletin there are also other notices for dances. We also sell tickets for dances, and that is about all.

RUSSOL MYERS: Our home-room program starts at nine-thirty usually lasting fifteen minutes exceping on Friday, we then have a half-hour period. Every day of the week except Friday we just read bulletins put out by the office and take the attendance; on Friday we have our choice of anything that we might like to do.

Most home rooms in my school—Patrick Henry—have home-room organizations, that is, they have a president, a vice president, a secretary, and a treasurer. The president usually appoints a committee to take care of entertainment on Friday. What they usually do is to get talent from the school; a boy might play a harmonica, a saxophone, and they are pretty well in use every Friday because the various rooms bid for them.

There are no orders sent out by the office as to how the time must be used in the home room, but the usual procedure is as I have outlined every day in the week.

DR. FRETWELL: Suppose we hear a little about home rooms in senior high schools.

NINA PANARIISI: In this period the chief function is guidance. This guidance consists of social, moral, educational, and vocational, and each guidance is carried out when the occasion arises.

Our home-room organization consists of a student councilor, a student council alternate, a business manager, and a secretary. They all have their various duties, some of which are councilor—our student councilor is president of the home room; he attends the student council meetings and takes charge of the class in the absence of the home-room teacher. The student council alternate takes over the various duties of the councilor if he happens to be absent.

The business manager is in charge of all tickets. Since we have a rather good athletic program at our school, we have many athletic contest ticket sales, and we have a special person to take care of these tickets.

Then our secretary has charge of attendance, and various other duties throughout the home room, which the other officers do not take care of.

We have special programs that we have during the home-room period; we have a social room at our school and sometimes we go there to spend a home-room period. Our home-room period is passed in various ways but it is routine usually.

DR. FRETWELL: Now I think it would meet with your approval if these people would tell us—and they have no idea I am going to propose the next question—whether they think these schools that they come from ought to have home-room periods or not.

The question probably is biased because of the fact that they are in home-room periods of one kind or another and they can say in connection with that (if they care to) how they think they could be improved.

Let me ask a few of them whether they think we ought to have—because I am going to challenge everything we have this afternoon—whether they think we ought to have home-room periods or not.

EDGAR BECKER: I think we should have home rooms, definitely. I think the student participation in home rooms should be greater than is allowed in some schools. I feel in some schools the teacher regulations are too strict. Such students as the president, the vice president, and other officers of the home room should be given a freer hand, and the teacher should act as a guide rather than a pedagogue on a pedestal who looks down to see that you do the right thing during that period. [Applause]

I find students will be more free in their opinions of how they think a school should be run. They won't want to take a teacher's job, of course, but they like to give their opinions as to how the program should be arranged so they can have time for extra-curriculum activities, and how they would like their study halls arranged in such manner that they could participate in those activities.

MILDRED GUILFOYLE: I particularly like the home-room organization, especially the way we have it in our school.

We have our home rooms organized on a permanent basis; we enter in 10-B and remain until 12-A and in this way we have a chance to become acquainted with the home-room teacher, and there is a real guidance by the teacher and our home-room advisors. I feel that particularly in John Hay our home-room organization is set up quite well and I do approve of it.

JOE BOYDOS: I also voice the same opinion as Edgar, that the teachers sometimes are a bit too strict. Naturally I see some smiles in the crowd. Sometimes the teacher does this unwillfully, perhaps he means well sometimes [laughter] however, I suppose we are the younger blood and we like something fast and furious.

The home rooms at our school are split up on the general basis of male and female, and we get together in the home rooms and we generally talk over the problems of the world in our home rooms, and we have a chance to know everybody, and in this way we increase attendance, by the fact that sometimes we go out and challenge a girls' home room to an attendance contest—that is for the month—the loser foots the bill for a party.

On the other hand, as Edgar said, home rooms aren't run by the presidents and vice presidents and officers in the home room, and they really should be given a freer hand.

DR. FRETWELL: We will take one more.

ROY UNGER: I believe they are an absolute necessity. We are handicapped by a too short home-room period. We have public address announcements too and even some of the teachers complain at not having enough time. As one teacher put it, when we have a long home room the good ones get better and the poor ones get worse.

I believe Miss Parmenter had the answer to that question when she said that if home-room teachers were trained to take home rooms and paid for it as a separate class, home rooms could really be improved.

I feel that if they were on that basis a great deal could be gotten out of them. I feel even though we have short home-room periods at our school and cannot do a great deal, we get a good deal out of them.

. . . (a request from the floor was made to ask questions). . .

DR. FRETWELL: In the matter of questions, if you are willing to let me drive straight through and then we can take all comers—one for instance wants to know what kind of sponsors these people like. Well, I am not turning that question loose just yet.

If you are willing in that fashion, let me be arbitrary in this because you know after you take the bit in your teeth I don't know whether I will ever get it back or not. But we want the questions from the floor later.

I understand that all of us come from schools that have student councils. I want particularly to hear about how they are organized, first briefly, and then what do the student councils do.

Russol, I am going to ask you to talk about this: how is your student council organized; is your home-room representative chosen by the principal as one so-called student council I know of is, or how is that done?

RUSSOL MYERS: Our representatives are chosen by the home-room group, that is one of the functions of the home-room group organizations, they choose representatives for the student council and the safety council.

The representatives of the student council are sixty-two in number. We have provision in our Constitution which allows councilors-at-large to become members of the student council, so with that we have about seventy in all, in our student council.

The representatives of the different home rooms give their name and home-room numbers as they arise; in that way we can take attendance. Our student council accomplishes many things, one of them we are very proud of was accomplished Tuesday of last week. We had a portrait of Patrick Henry presented to our school. We have been working for that for the past four years and we are very proud to have finally obtained it.

Some terms the representatives in the student council choose the presi-

dent, the vice president, and other members of the executive committee by themselves, and some terms we let the entire school participate in the election. But what we usually do, so far as electing nominees for the different offices is concerned, is to let the representatives of the council do that and then put the vote to the school as to who will be president.

I think one thing very few schools have tried, and which our school has tried and found very interesting is the fact that we send representatives of our student council to the elementary schools and we find that we get a large response from this and it is very satisfactory. What we do is to get six A's interested in the work we do at Patrick Henry, and some 7B's and 7-A's and 8-B's, and interested in the student council and help our school along, and that is what we want, people who will work and help our school.

DR. FRETWELL: Mr. Becker—the same question.

EDGAR BECKER: Our council representatives are elected in the home room; we have a representative and an alternate. The student council consists of a president, a vice president, a secretary and a treasurer, and they are elected at the end of every semester. There are certain qualifications which they must measure up to: an average of 85 for the entire year's high-school work is required in order that a person may become a candidate. Election booths are set up at the end of each semester, where a person must register before he may vote. At this vote it requires a majority to elect a candidate to office. In the student council there are various committees, Welfare Committee, Civic Improvement Committee, Standards Committee, Social Committee. The Social Committee regulates or takes care of all school dances. In the council there are various projects which we attempt every semester. Some, in the past, have sponsored the Honor Society, organizing student government, study halls, a student government lunch room—the latter is our newest practical project which was accomplished this semester. In this student-governed lunch room the students select tables at the beginning of the semester, each chooses a host or a hostess and they remain the entire semester and we find luncheon has improved greatly.

All business which goes from the student council must of course be passed by the principal of the high school, and as yet we have not found any way of overriding the principal's veto. [Laughter]

Other requirements for officers are the president of the student council shall be a member of the senior 12-B or 12-A class; the treasurer shall be a member of the 11th or 12th grade, and the secretary shall have had typing and shorthand, so that she can take care of the minutes at every meeting. They are distributed to the home room where they are read the last five minutes of the home-room period on Tuesday.

TIM GUNN: At Lakewood we pride ourselves on what we call one of the most democratic student council bodies in the city of Cleveland. Our student council body is based on the home-room plan, that is, each home room has one representative. These representatives meet together and four weeks before our final exam week they nominate people for the various offices, a president, a secretary, and a treasurer. We have no restrictions upon these nominations. Of course the students that are nominated must be members of the student council. On the following week we also open the nominations up again, and if there are any further nominations we accept them, and close the nominations that week. On the following week the students are given a chance to draw up their parties and present their platforms.

At Lakewood we are very liberal in our campaign. I don't know if any of you who come from Cleveland saw any of the several articles in the Cleveland newspapers about the way our campaign is run at Lakewood. I have here one of our posters which probably if it had been suggested it be put up in some high schools they would have thrown the student out. I am going to show you one to give you an idea about our campaign at Lakewood.

. . . unrolled printed poster which read as follows. . . .

FOR STUDENT COUNCIL ELECT
TIM GUNN, President
JEAN BISHOP, Secretary
CHAUK PRESSLER, Treasurer
PROGRESSIVE LIBERAL PARTY

DR. FRETWELL: You will understand, this is Tim Gunn holding the sign up. [Laughter]

TIM GUNN: I am proud to say that the Progressive Liberal Party was victorious; the other party was the Student Progressive Party.

You are probably wondering why we divide up into parties. We figure that if the students get together in parties they can draw up a better platform, because they are going to work together. Also we allot a certain amount for expenditures, each student is only allowed to spend fifty cents. Accordingly, if you get into a party you have that much more to spend for advertising. You are probably wondering about a sign like this—it costs quite a bit to have one made. We are always ready to accept donations, and that was a donation.

You may also be interested to know that we are given a chance to have our brass bands and our speakers in the halls and things like that.

During the campaign this year we had several speakers hooked up throughout the halls. During these programs we give a chance to some of

the outstanding students of the school to speak for the various parties.

Now that we have taken care of the election, we have our president elected; each home room is allowed as many votes as there are people in the home room. If a student is absent he loses his chance to vote. There are ballots passed around in the home rooms, each student votes for one for president, for one for secretary, and for one for treasurer. The student receiving the highest number of votes of course is the president; the student receiving the highest number of votes for secretary is recording secretary, and the girl receiving the second highest number of votes for secretary is the corresponding secretary; the student receiving the highest number of votes for treasurer is treasurer.

The student council at Lakewood, I believe, has done a great deal. The idea about the election is of such a democratic nature, it was brought about by a student council president about six years ago.

We are very proud of our Principal at Lakewood. He lets us do a very great deal. He has a lot of faith in the students and we are certainly proud of him.

Last semester one of the things that came up in the campaign was about car parades at Lakewood. We realized that many of the school students would like to see some of the out-of-town games. The student council got the idea of holding car parades. The faculty backing was not so strong for our first one, but we received permission to go ahead. The day of the game came. The game was in Elyria, forty miles from Lakewood, quite a distance to expect students to go. They practically floored me. We had about seven hundred students go to Elyria to the game. That was the largest attendance at an out-of-town game in the history of Lakewood, and we have had some good teams there.

Another thing we have done at the student council at Lakewood is to install honor study halls. That was something that came up in the campaign this semester. In these study halls there is no attendance taken, no regular seats are assigned. Students are put in on the basis of whether they are a member of the honor society or on the honor or merit roll the past semester, a member of the student council for the eleventh or twelfth grade, or recommended by the home-room teacher.

I could go on here for hours and hours talking about what our student council has done, but I am sure you would like to hear from some of the other student councils so I will give up. [Applause]

DR. FRETWELL: To be honest, I believe Tim likes his student council idea.

We will take one more on that.

NINA PANARIISI: While we are on the idea of student council, I would like to say that my school conducts its elections in a different way. We

have our elections in the student council only and not the entire school participating in it.

I would like to say that our student council, like Tim's is composed of representatives from home rooms, that is, one representative from each home room. In the student council we have members representing various systems throughout our school. We have commander of the hall guards, commander of the cafeteria guard, and commander of the news movie guards. Just recently we have a social room established in our school and we have a commander for that.

We also have chairmen of the various other committees like our student control, study halls, lost and found, ticket committee, library guards, safety committee, athletic committee, and assembly committee. These various chairmen all have their duties. Each week, if they have anything to report on or if they have any special news that they want to get across to the students throughout the school they say it in the council meeting and the representative tells the students on the next Monday.

We have both a senior and a junior student council at our school but we have different meetings for each. The junior student council holds its meeting on Tuesday, the Senior on Friday.

Although these meetings are held separately, our executive meetings are held together. There is a faculty advisor for each student council, that is, both senior and junior.

In previous years we had all the committee heads I named on our executive committee, but starting last year we thought that it would be better to reduce our number of executives and in that way get more compact ideas. You know if you get too many hands in the soup, as the old saying goes, you don't get much good out of it, [laughter] so we thought if we had less people we would get better ideas and we would get more accomplished.

DR. FRETWELL: Well, that is a grown-up idea.

NINA PANARIISI: We sponsor various projects in our school, one of the main ones is assemblies. It is rather hard, getting a good assembly program. The students want something up-to-date; they like speakers but they do not seem to care very much for them if you get too many of them, so we have quite a problem in our school in getting assemblies that the students really enjoy; each semester we ask the students to hand in suggestions so that the assembly chairman may get some ideas of what the students really want. She succeeds pretty well. This semester I am in charge of that job and I can realize what a chairman has to go through to get an assembly program that the students really enjoy.

The noon movie guards are in charge of noon movies. At our school we have noon movies during lunch period. I would like to admit that they

do a very good job of it. Our faculty sponsor really deserves credit, and the boys deserve credit for the fine work they do.

RUSSOL MYERS: I would like to ask a question: do you have activities tickets for your noon movies and other activities, or do you pay for the noon movies, two cents or a nickel or whatever your charge is as you go along?

NINA PANARITISI: We do not have activities tickets at Collinwood; but we are now trying to get them.

DR. FRETWELL: We will take up this whole matter of activities tickets before we get through.

I have heard, Miss Guilfoyle, that at John Hay you have a real citizenship campaign; I heard about it from your Principal, Mr. Moore, years ago. I would like to check up on this W. L. Moore, who is an old student of mine, and I would like to hear about this citizenship stuff over there.

MILDRED GUILFOYLE: Our citizenship program in John Hay has grown up from our own needs and conditions. It isn't anything we have followed along the line of anything any other schools have done in training their students to be good citizens.

As soon as the students enter John Hay as 10-B's one of the first things we like them to learn is that it is not only pleasant but desirable to contribute something to your school in the way of service, and we also feel that this invokes the civic spirit in them, that will live on after they are through school.

The first step in doing this is getting them acquainted with something that means service, that is our student council. It is the student council members that train our new students, teach them the rules and regulations and get them acquainted with the student leaders in the school.

For six weeks the students have various programs. The other day we had a Professor Quiz Contest, all of the questions in the Quiz were based on the school rules and regulations, the leaders, and various things they should know about the school. They have lesson sheets from which they study, and by the sixth week of school they are tested on all this information. This is called our Citizenship Test. All of the students who pass the citizenship test are permitted to participate in the extra-curriculum activities and really be considered a part of our school. We have our citizenship day program. At this time we recognize our service workers and accept the new students. This ties up the idea that a good citizen and being of service to your school just go hand-in-hand.

We have a very simple but impressive program. The new students take the pledge of loyalty, which is administered by our student city man-

ager, at the same time they receive their certificate of citizenship which is signed by our Director of Service and our student manager. That day we also acknowledge our service workers by giving them these emblems. Each year we have a different type of emblem. This [displays emblem] is what we will have for our citizens in John Hay. The students like to wear something to show they are part of the school. Most of the information that students get for the test comes from our student handbook, in addition to the lesson sheets that are prepared by the directors of service of the student council, and usually every student passes the test, but it is not so much passing the test by itself, but it is really the spirit that we get by attempting to put over this citizenship program, and the students really do feel that when they know their school they really want to be a part of it, and in that way we have worked up our service organization so that the students feel no matter how little they do they are doing something. At present we have between fifteen hundred and sixteen hundrd students working actively in service for the school.

DR. FRETWELL: When I ask all these people if they were you (imagining they were principals), and ladies and gentlemen of the panel, most of these people are principals, as you see by their grave and reverend looks —I am going to ask all of you folks here, if you were principals of high schools would you have a council? If so, why, and if you would not have a council, why not?

EDGAR BECKER: If I were principal of a high school, I would be glad to have a council because it takes some of the work and responsibility away from a principal that he has to compete with, such as keeping the students out of mischief, such as giving them service to do.

DR. FRETWELL: My guess is that he is all wrong; I think if you have a council you have more trouble and more work than if you make all the decisions yourself. I don't believe you will get out of responsibility that way.

MILDRED GUILFOYLE: I think that a student council would be valuable for students, if it only did one thing, that is give them a sense of responsibility, which all real students get when they are graduating from school after student council service.

JOE BOYDOS: I agree with Edgar again, that a student council is necessary to the school to promote some of the school projects, such as tickets, and the citizenship activities, honor study halls, et cetera, which the principal might not be able to do all by himself, therefore I think the student council is absolutely necessary.

ROY UNGER: Certainly a student council is necessary, as was pointed out by Mildred, it develops a feeling of responsibility in the students in the

activities they do. I can truthfully say many things in our school were started by students who had original and new ideas, and worked them out on their own initiative. The student council in our school does a great deal of good; I am sure it is the same in every school.

RUSSOL MYERS: I think student councils are fine because a principal would certainly appreciate getting the views of the pupils whose job is to direct. The students have funny ideas for some things, but they have fine ideas on others. I think as a principal he would get a lot of good ideas that would be profitable.

EVELYN LAWRY: I too believe that student council is very necessary to school work, besides attempting to solve civic and social problems of the school and giving the student body a sense of responsibility it also reflects the student opinion to the principal.

RICHARD LITTLE: I think student council is very necessary because it represents the ideas of the student body which the principal might not see without the council.

RAY DOTTORE: I believe the student council is very necessary; we do a lot of business in our office, and so we relieve the principal of a lot of duties. [Laughter]

LOIS HAINLEY: If I were a principal first of all I would have a council definitely, and second of all I would recognize the need to have a son or a daughter, because through that son or daughter I would feel that my reasoning would be better, I would go home, and say, "Son, what do you think?" because he has young ideas, and young ideas are necessary to a principal. [Laughter and applause]

TIM GUNN: Talking about young ideas, I might say that at Lakewood we have something different. During one of our home-room programs—

DR. FRETWELL (Interrupting): Don't make a speech, Tim; what do you think about student council?

TIM GUNN: I was not going to make a speech, I was going to bring out something in connection with young ideas.

I believe student council is a great aid: It does prepare you for life. We all have to go into life, and vote, and take care of our civic problems, and our student council is a great aid to us in that preparation.

NINA PANARIISI: I agree with all the other students that the student council is a necessity in a school, if you can have it. It not only develops responsibility, as Mildred said, but it develops a feeling of confidence, poise and a feeling of coöperation which you would not get in any other way.

RAY WILLSON: As Mr. Johnston said, the school is composed of both the faculty and the students; there must be a coöperation between these two important groups, and that coöperation is achieved mainly by the student council. A council is a necessary part of every school.

DR. FRETWELL: Now we are leaving that particular topic and we have used up thirty-four minutes, if I count correctly. We will use about twelve or fifteen more, then we will throw the meeting open to you, and we will talk until about three minutes of four, and I will use three minutes to sum up, so you know the road from here on.

Ray comes from East Technical High School. We won't talk so much about publications, not that they are not so important, but we have got to economize time, so you do a little better job, Ray, than if anybody else was going to get in; cover your subject in about two or three minutes.

RAY WILLSON: Well in most high schools the object of the school paper is to acquaint the students, the faculty, and their parents, with the news of the school. The school publication is the voice of the school, it is the official organ.

At East Tech. we have a plan which is unique in the city at least, of instead of having subscription campaigns for every student, we have each home room subscribe as units.

In this way every pupil in the school gets our school newspaper. This is accomplished by having home rooms with an enrollment of say twenty-eight or thirty-two pay a certain rate every week; home rooms with a higher enrollment will pay a proportionally larger amount. The school attempts a coverage of clubs, home rooms, honor societies, the office, and other organizations throughout the school to keep the students acquainted with what is going on.

Our student paper has about thirty-five hundred persons subscribing to it. This includes all our students, the faculty and some alumni, and most of the students take their paper home to their parents, and I think that this is perhaps one of the most important things which can be accomplished in any school—to have the parents learn what is going on.

The school is a factor in the community to better it. If the parents are interested in the school through the school newspaper, they can learn of what is going on, and in that way help to better any community.

Besides school newspapers there are various other publications. Almost every school has a handbook, usually published by the student council. This handbook, at least ours is, is distributed to the meetings, it tells of our clubs, of our council work, newspaper work, school courses. It contains a brief review of the school history and other things of a like nature.

Besides that, there may be a literary publication of some type published throughout the school year. This may consist of prize winning stories in English classes; in our school we have no junior annual, but I know of several high schools represented here that have. Of course the main annual is the senior edition.

Our annual is published in both February and June; it costs one dollar for every graduating senior; there are about five hundred members of the junior graduating class and at the present time we are working on, we have started work on, our annual. This is the thirtieth year that East Tech. has done work in technical training, and the annual staff has decided to dedicate the junior book to the ideals of technical education.

DR. FRETWELL: Will you bring out the idea as to whether you have journalism classes or not, which in any way prepare for these publications or are they solely made up of interested teachers and pupils outside of curriculum?

RAY WILLSON: Our school newspaper is composed of about thirty to thirty-five members, student members, and five faculty advisors. We have two for the editorial staff, one for the business staff, and two for the printing end of it.

Our paper is published in our school. All pupils who wish to get on the staff are required to take a semester of theory training. They get no actual work for the student newspaper until their second semester when they become cub members. Students are allowed five points a semester for this, a maximum of four semesters credit.

On the other publications there are no requirements in the preparation. We have tried to pass around the posts, as Mr. Johnston has said, by not having the editor of the school paper become the editor of the annual, as is true in many schools I know of, and so we make the editor of the student paper ineligible for major positions on the annual staff.

The annual is usually composed of interested persons, in that type of work. The student council handbook is usually put out by a committee of the president of the council, the editor of the *Scarab,* and various other board members with the help of our student council advisor in that.

DR. FRETWELL: Thank you, Ray. I am particularly interested in that myself because of the fact that Cleveland and this part of the country has long been known for its achievements in getting the newspaper work rooted in the curriculum. It is one of the things done in earlier days here, and we are still comparing people like Miss Margaret Sullivan, and Claire Ewald, with Edith Penny, pioneers in this field of developing school newspapers that were rooted in the curricular work of the school, and still had the extra-curriculum flavor too. I remember when Miss Claire Ewald and

Margaret Sullivan got jobs on the *Plain Dealer* at twenty dollars a week, and learned a slice of life that these ladies would otherwise doubtless not have learned at all.

ROY UNGER: May I interrupt a moment? I would like to add that at our school we have a novel feature. Latin may be a dead language, but at our school we have a Latin newspaper published four times a year by students chosen out of the advanced Latin classes, a four-page edition with four columns in it. They get a lot of fun out of printing, publishing it and the students of Latin in their classes have a lot of fun in translating it. They have certain articles in Latin, some in English, and there are a lot of jokes and crossword puzzles, et cetera, and it has proved very interesting at our school.

DR. FRETWELL: I heard a definition of an optimist—a man who works his crossword puzzles in ink. [Laughter]

How many of you people here come from schools that have school newspapers?

. . . all raised hands. . . .

Just look!

How many of your schools have handbooks?

. . . two or three hands raised. . . .

Thank you very much; now we want to travel along.

You know this party would not be complete, for Harry Church at least, if we did not get an idea of whether we have any Honor Societies represented in Cleveland—is that right, Mr. Church? I wouldn't disappoint an ambitious young man like Harry Church.

MR. CHURCH: Thank you, thank you, thank you.

DR. FRETWELL: You may delete that from the record. [Laughter]

How many of you senior high-school people come from schools that have chapters of the National Honor Societies?

. . . seven raised hands. . . .

How many have some other type of honor society, any of you?

. . . one. . . .

Lois, will you take the "mike" and tell us a bit about honor societies as you see it, regardless of what anybody else says?

LOIS HAINLEY: Well at West High School the Honor Society was organized in 1930. It was about 1970th on the list. This was all new and interesting to me, to find out, because until a week ago I did not know some of these vital statistics. Naturally the requirements carry good leadership, scholarship, and service, and are the same as almost anywhere you find a National Honor Society chapter.

The constitution complies with the national constitution but there is a difference in method of election. This was news to me, too. I really had not thought about it much. Our method of election at West High School comes in about three stages. We have first a questionnaire circulated to all people who are anywhere near eligible for the Honor Society; secondly, after these questionnaires have been turned in, I might say the questionnaires cover every phase of the student's life possible; there is a place for home-room offices, and all clubs that we belong to, all musical organizations you belong to, dramatic organizations, your average thus far in school—everything about you.

Second in this method of election is the general faculty meeting which is held; students are then suggested whom the faculty believe worthy to be members of the National Honor Society; then as a third and final step, when these students have been looked over, and according to their questionnaires it has been decided whether or not they are eligible, there is a final decision made by an Honor Society committee. I don't know, but I imagine this committee is made up of different faculty members each year; I cannot say for sure, and the upper third—or it has been customary that the upper third—of the class is eligible; five per cent of the 11-A's, five per cent of the 12-A's, and five per cent of the 12-B's fifteen per cent in all, eligible to come into the society. This is a maximum, but not a minimum, for many times they do not take in the full number because perhaps they do not feel the others are worthy of this honor.

I was rather shocked when I heard that the Honor Society members were taken in first by questionnaires, then by general faculty meeting, then finally by an Honor Society committee not made up of any students of the National Honor Society but of faculty. Many students in the school are inclined to believe that many worthy Honor Society students are eliminated. We have to expect that because it is a limited society, but many feel that the Honor Society member of to-day is the stuffed shirt of to-morrow, because he is a teacher's pet. That is not the case at all. There have been Honor Society members undoubtedly who have gone so far ahead in scholarship that they have left service way behind somewhere, where they kicked it aside because they were so interested in their studies. This is no reflection particularly on the student, he is merely very scholarly and interested in what he is doing, but as I see it, I feel that in any school the National Honor Society membership should be elective, with suggestions by faculty members; yes, they are in position to know the student definitely, but the Honor Society members should have something to say about this; the Honor Society student member of to-day is not the stuffed shirt of to-morrow; we have a lot of live, human people in our Honor Societies to-day, but they can be a lot more alive and a lot more human if faculty members recognize the great need that we have to look through the stu-

dent's viewpoint, and as Dr. Johnston said, have faith in him, because that is what we need—faith—so that you know that we may have an idea that just by chance may be worth something.

Now, there is one more thing I wanted to say: we have never expelled anyone at West High, but three unexcused absences should automatically expel one from the club, and of course failure to live up to the ideals of the club. I don't think that has ever happened.

About two months ago, I believe, I attended a city-wide meet where there was a representative from each school, of their National Honor Society; it was agreed at that meeting to have two meetings per semester, one a social and one a business meeting. We agreed to hold the place of meeting alphabetically. I remember we went to Collinwood.

So far as: what does National Honor Society at West High do for West High? Well in any case where they need good dependable people, people they know they can count on, for instance, in guiding, ushering, or helping out as at this convention which is here in town this week (I know of Honor Society members who are helping out down here); we also tutor. We have not gone far with the tutoring this year, but as the occasion arises we will tutor students who are having trouble, in our free periods. We have eight honor study halls. We generally put two Honor Society members in these honor study halls and I imagine we have approximately two hundred and forty students enrolled in them. I might say that last year the honor study halls were not successful. I am saying this because you can improve them. This year our honor studies are much better than they were last year. Students somehow recognize their responsibility and find it just as easy to be quiet as to shoot paper airplanes around the room and make a lot of noise, and believe me they do it in honor studies at times. This year we have had such a vast improvement that that kind of thing doesn't exist any more.

DR. FRETWELL: What seems to be the trouble? Why were they bad a year ago compared to now?

LOIS HAINLEY: That is something I can hardly answer. I was so surprised this year when I enrolled in honor studies and found them so different from last year. I can't answer it. I think they are used to it. You put something new into a school and maybe the first year it is unsuccessful but suddenly they become accustomed to it and for no reason they take it for granted and settle down.

DR. FRETWELL: Would you advise the principals if they try out something and get a little discouraged, to keep on hoping?

LOIS HAINLEY: Definitely. I think we can say that more at West High than they can in a lot of places. We have tried a lot of new ideas in the

past three years and I started in at West High when the student council started at West High. We are a very young student council; we have accomplished a lot. I would say: don't give up, say you will always improve; there is always room for improvement, and there will be improvement. [Applause]

DR. FRETWELL: Thank you.

One other main topic I want to take up. We have not covered in this at all the relations of the school and the community.

A lot of these people are sending me notes saying that we are skipping some of these things. I want to take up one particular idea, and ask Miss Lawry to talk about that, to bring out the relation of these student activities to the community. I want her to bear down on that.

EVELYN LAWRY: Through the work of the children in school, the people in the community will be more interested and they will help the school out a lot.

I know in Garfield, the community helps by subscribing to the newspaper and also by placing ads in the paper, which add to our financial part of the paper.

But possibly the greatest coöperation that we have ever had was during the last two months of the campaign of last year, August and September. It was during those two months that we passed the bond issue. In the August primary voting we put up the bond, which had to receive a sixty-five per cent majority; however on the first vote it only received a fifty-eight per cent, and of course we were greatly discouraged when we came back to school, we had three weeks to work on the bond issue to make it pass. This bond issue would give us larger school, an auditorium from which we could graduate, and we would not have to go to another school, it would give us more rooms, and we would have better study periods, and also we would have longer study periods. On this bond issue we went out and we really made the people vote for it. At the first voting we were more or less a handful of people, however, during the second vote we had seventy-five per cent of the people of Garfield Heights out to vote. In other words we had not just a handful of people who were for it, we had seventy-five per cent of the whole community. We had this bond issue passed by an almost eighty per cent vote. Due to this we can have our larger school which is to begin next year.

We had girls go out and where voters could not leave their small children, they would stay in the home and take care of the children. [Applause] We also had cars go out and pick up people who would not vote because they had too far to walk. We had one of our faculty advisors in charge of this, and he arranged it so that these people would be

picked up, taken to the polls and taken back and in that way they voted—whether they voted yes or no.

It was also during that day that we had girls and boys stationed outside of the booths, who handed out literature concerning the bond issue. Many people thought if it was passed they would have more taxes to pay and didn't want to vote for it for that reason, but we told them that this wasn't so. We had many parades, and we had it all worked out, and we could prove that the taxes would not increase, but that they would more or less decrease. [Laughter]

We also had parades, as I said, and we would take some of the popular songs, for instance, "Stop Beating 'Round the Mulberry Bush," which we parodied to, "Stop Beating 'Round the Bond Issue."

We had different items of publicity, and the people thought: we may as well vote for it, and get it over with, and give them their larger school. [Applause and laughter]

As a result it was passed by an eighty per cent majority and our school enlargement is now in process and you will see next year that our work was well repaid. [Applause]

DR. FRETWELL: By my watch it is now three minutes to four; would you like to ask questions? If you would, would you like to stay here if I will promise to let you out at four-fifteen? We are willing to dismiss you whenever you want; we don't want anybody walking out. How many would like to devote fifteen minutes to questions from the floor and dismiss at four-fifteen?

. . . from a show of hands the large majority desired to remain. . .

We haven't covered as many things as we would like to do, as you can readily see.

If you want to stay fifteen minutes more we will be glad to have you stay, if you want to go, we will be glad to have you go now rather than during the fifteen minutes. It is a perfectly honorable procedure to go now, if you want to. I always like to finish things with real distinction, and we believe in freedom.

A few seats down in the front have been vacated, if those of you in the back want to come down please come down. I happen to be a Southern Baptist and we usually extend the right hand of fellowship to those who come down in front but we will pass that up for to-day. [Laughter]

I think we will work it out faster if you will write your questions on a piece of paper. Dr. Williams, will you go down and collect the questions?

Now while you are doing that we will go on.

I have a million questions I want to ask, myself.

One of the first questions which was asked is:

What is the main quality that you like in a sponsor of any activity, home-room or club or council, or whatever it is? Not all the qualities—you need not describe the perfect person, but one or two things you particularly like. Is that a fair question?

QUESTION FROM THE AUDIENCE: What do you mean by sponsor?

DR. FRETWELL: I mean the adult person, the teacher who acts as sponsor.

RAY DOTTORE: If your sponsor has faith in you, that I think is the main thing.

LOIS HAINLEY: I think one of the things that a student likes in a sponsor, not particularly a liberal one, not that at all, but a definite interest and a broad-minded attitude that is able to see our viewpoint.

TIM GUNN: We always like to have a good spirit of coöperation and if we think a plan can work, we like to have the faculty sponsor behind us, and not leery of the whole program.

NINA PANARIISI: We like to have one who takes a natural interest in the students and in the projects which they are sponsoring. I think that is one of the most important factors in being a sponsor for anything.

RAY WILLSON: I think the students of to-day want not a faculty sponsor but more a faculty advisor who advises the students as to what they can do. Some sponsors may take a leading part in council affairs and they should, but I believe that in the council or in any other organization for that matter, the main pushing of any idea should be by the students and that the faculty sponsor should advise them with his or her wealth of wisdom gained in the time they have been teaching.

EVELYN LAWRY: Besides having an advisor who is coöperative and who really takes an interest in it, I also think the advisor should also make suggestions that she thinks will be worth while to the school but which have not been made by the students themselves.

RUSSOL MYERS: I feel that most advisors are usually pleased to see that the meetings go along all right, so I think that most advisors, in fact all advisors should be able to understand and appreciate the troubles that students might run up against.

DR. FRETWELL: You get the tune of the thing—if you don't mind we will go on. Here is the next question:

Would you suggest that the sponsors stay away from meetings, acting as advisors from a distance?

EDGAR BECKER: I would like to say that I don't see how a person can act as an advisor if he doesn't know what is going on in the meetings? He would have to be present at the meetings in order to act in an advisory capacity.

TIM GUNN: I believe that when the student council advisor is not there students feel more free to get up and say what they feel, but if they figure the assistant principal or somebody is going to check up on them, they are not as free.

MILDRED GUILFOYLE: I disagree. I think especially in a large school where you have a large student council it is sometimes the only opportunity the advisor has to speak to the entire council as a body, and they should be at the meetings and should work right with the council at all times.

LOIS HAINLEY: What Tim just said, that the students would feel more free to get up and speak if the advisor were not present suggests the answer and that is: don't be that kind of an advisor, be the kind of an advisor with whom the students could feel free to say what they want to say. [Applause]

DR. FRETWELL: This particular question is yours, Tim, I think: How are activities planned?

TIM GUNN: Well at Lakewood we try to back our activities through an activities pass. This project originated in the student council; it came in five years ago. I know there are a lot of schools that would like to have activities passes. You must keep one thing in mind: get the students behind them, not just the teachers.

At Lakewood they tried something before, and it had failed; then the student council decided to back this plan and it immediately went over.

We started with the football pass, which just included a ticket that sold for one dollar, to eight games. This proved so successful that the following year we went ahead and decided to have a regular activities pass, and on this activities pass we gave seven football games; seven basketball games, seven baseball games, four tennis meets, four track meets, four swimming meets, and four wrestling meets—thirty-seven events in all, which if you had paid separately would have totaled seven dollars and fifty cents, but if the student bought a pass cost him two dollars. If a student is a good business man, he knows that is quite a saving--five dollars and fifty cents—you can buy a lot of sodas, with that.

JOE BOYDOS: At John Adams we have a more simple activities thing, it is composed of only three football games, the journal, and the movie pass. The movie pass is two cents a day at our school, and there are ninety

days to the semester which is a dollar and eighty cents, and our Journal, that is twenty cents per semester—that is two dollars.

However, we have found out that we could not go into a detailed activities ticket because of the insecurity of the sales, so we started out by simply having a football pass, graduating upward. At the present time we do not believe in enlarging our football pass or any other part of our activities ticket because we have done fairly well. Last year we sold in the neighborhood of two hundred activities tickets at a dollar and a half, and this has gone into a general fund and has supported all our athletic activities.

At the inter-school forum in discussing activities tickets, Miss Parmenter, our advisor has commented on the fact that we should not start out with a detailed activities ticket because there is liable to be a failure due to insufficient backing.

A lot of other schools have very detailed activities tickets, such as Tim has at Lakewood. This fellow from South also has quite a detailed activities ticket. However they must start with the minimum activities ticket if they wish success, and the student council must get behind everything in an effort to drive and succeed for the various activities through the activities ticket.

DR. FRETWELL: One more on that.

Miss Guilfoyle, Mr. Moore at your school told me one time if I remember correctly they sold activities tickets that had many activities.

MILDRED GUILFOYLE: That was before my time at John Hay, but it was said that you cannot have a lot of activities on an activities ticket, and have it succeed. I disagree. We brought our activities in two semesters ago, I think we could call it absolutely successful; over one whole school year it would be three dollars if you paid it on time payments, it was two dollars and fifty cents for a cash payment and in that ticket we include football, basketball, wrestling, the Ledger, the paper . . . , our Humors, a book made up by the English classes of essays, poetry, short stories, the Art work, done in our art classes, the Jamboree, which is a grand show we have during the Spring semester, a concert, and a Varsity-Faculty basketball game, which we all like so well. We take that in on our activities ticket; it has been quite successful and we have all the activities on it, and we have found that it is much better than trying to have separate athletics passes as at Lakewood—it just seems to be athletic activities there, but we take in everything on ours, and if they wish to buy it for one semester it is one dollar and a half.

DR. FRETWELL: Here is another question to the panel:

Would you like for someone to use the power of the veto such as the

principal or the superintendent? What do you think of the veto idea on the part of the principal or the sperintendent?

EDGAR BECKER: For one thing, sometimes legislation is passed which the student may deem absolutely necessary and for some reason or other it may have succeeded in other schools, but the principal may feel it would not be successful in our school. I feel in some cases the student should be given a point to prove, the point before the principal or advisor vetoes this. We cannot do anything if we have not a chance to show our metal.

RUSSOL MYERS: In the lunch room at our school there is a very crowded condition; also we find that quite a few of the students would enjoy having the privilege of . . . We brought this up in the student council and executive meetings and talked to the principal and he vetoed it. He did not even give us a chance to prove that we might make a go of it, because of the fact that six years ago or so they had something there of the same type and they did not make a go of it. I told the principal that we would appreciate it if we could try it; he seems to think we could not make a go of it. I wish for that fact, that they didn't have such a great power of veto so we could try it.

DR. FRETWELL: Here is a question:

Does the student council meet on school time?

EVELYN LAWRY: We meet at two-thirty every other Tuesday.

DR. FRETWELL: Is that the end of the school day?

EVELYN LAWRY: No, Dr. Fretwell, it is not; it is regular school time.

JOE BOYDOS: Our student council is elected by the home room; we guaranteed nine periods off for student council meetings every other Tuesday of the month.

MILDRED GUILFOYLE: We have it the same way. We have our tenth hour regular class period—every council member has tenth hour free.

EDGAR BECKER: Our student council meetings rotate from one period to the next.

DR. FRETWELL: How do you get in the honor study hall?

LOIS HAINLEY: The system used in our school—I noticed one of the other schools is a little different—the home-room teacher announces in the home room, there will be for such-and-such a period room such-and-such for honor study hall; if you would like to sign up for that—and students who wish to sign up for the honor study hall with the approval of the home-room teacher are placed in there.

DR. FRETWELL: I hope all of you have read the articles by Ethel Parmenter on the Honor Study Hall; if you have not—it is assigned.

How large are your home rooms in senior high school?

RAY WILLSON: Our home rooms consist of about thirty-five members; we have about a hundred home rooms, and thirty-five hundred pupils in our school.

NINA PANARIISI: At Collinwood we have about forty to forty-seven in a home room, that is about the average.

TIM GUNN: Our home rooms consist of about forty and in the 12-A year all the seniors are thrown together and we have home rooms of two hundred and fifty.

LOIS HAINLEY: We have about an average of forty members in a home room at West High.

DR. FRETWELL: Here is a question—I am reading them just as they come:

Ask these young people whether or not they feel the Honor Societies are truly democratic organizations and worthy of inclusion among our high-school organizations.

Does anybody want that?

RAY WILLSON: Most of them, emphatically, the National Honor Society should be a vital part of your school work; at our school we have two Honor Societies, one the National Honor Society where students are elected or selected by the faculty committees, and our other honorary society the members are chosen by the students themselves, and we find that about ninety-nine times out of a hundred the same boys get into both honor societies, although the students are generally more strict than the teachers are in judging.

ROY UNGER: I believe the Honor Society is a good thing, when the school makes it a good thing. I think our school has made Honor Society a good thing. At Heights the teachers are the only ones who select candidates; they go through this process very thoroughly and carefully, and try to get the student they really feel deserves membership in the society. The society isn't a dormant and stagnant one, and a person just gets in, but it is a live wire organization active at all times. The members in the Honor Society at Heights perform services for teachers in the form of tutoring and as secretaries. We are required to have fifteen periods of service every semester if a person doesn't get these fifteen periods he is not kicked out of the organization, he is asked as a matter of honor to get them, and we find that all of the members of the Society live up to this requirement.

This year we have tried something new, that has proved successful, that is an anti-cheating campaign; that is a pretty ticklish subject, but in past years there has been a lot of criticism, members of the Society have inclined to cheating, we have drawn up a code of what we call cheating and not cheating; we have discussed it thoroughly in the Society, and by these discussions all the members of the Society have raised their individual standards and we are pretty clean and dry at the present.

DR. FRETWELL: A very funny thing has happened here. You see that question came in: are they democratic organizations? You may have noticed that our young people are not interested in playing with words in the abstract, or with abstract ideas; they very definitely got at what was the thing. They are not scared about this word democratic, whether it is or isn't, that is left for the calamity howlers mainly; these people are working. [Applause]

Is there any limit as to participation?

That means are they limited in the number of activities one student can go into?

May we hear these young people discuss this?

EVELYN LAWRY: If a student participates in more than two extra-curriculum activities he does not keep up well in his work, we have found. By participating in two extra-curriculum activities or clubs he can do more and better work in those two than if he participated in five and did not devote enough time to each.

LOIS HAINLEY: We have considered recently limiting extra-curriculum activities. I can frankly say from my own experience that when you try to do too much you do not do any of it well and it is hard on your health, your mental and physical activities both. I have tried it. I wouldn't give up my four years for anything, but I have been so busy that leisure is a word I hardly know the meaning of.

DR. FRETWELL: We have a wonderful notion that youth has leisure. Here is this question:

How many schools represented have courses in Journalism?

. . . all of them raised their hands but one . . .

You will notice the junior highs are up too.

How many of you publish an annual?

. . . five hands went up . . .

Thank you.

There was one time when all schools had annuals, they went over into getting out a special edition of the newspaper; it seems to have slipped a little since then, but it seems to be about fifty-fifty on that question.

A MEMBER FROM THE FLOOR: I would like to have the answer of these young folks to a suggestion Dr. Johnston made. He thought maybe only certain folks should be allowed to take action in extra-curriculum activities.

DR. FRETWELL: The question is whether there should be qualification in respect to grades in order to be able to participate in extra-curricular activities?

NINA PANARIISI: I think there should be some limitation as to what your grades are supposed to be. After all, as the girl from West High said, if you have too many activities that take up your time you don't do anything well. Well, if you have too many activities that take up your time how can you give any attention toward your subjects? You have to have a pretty good average to keep up the extra work.

LOIS HAINLEY: I want to say one thing in answer to that: I meant that belonging to too many extra-curriculum activities rather than this grade limitation—I say this: that many students go through high school lost because they have one thing they are interested in and do not know what it is. Through an extra-curriculum activity this student might find something where his energy can be devoted, and because of that will be a finer person. We should not limit people in extra-curriculum activities with grades of eighty-five or above. I do not approve of that at all. Some people have gone through high school whose averages have been seventy and above who have been our leaders of to-day, right now in Cleveland, or in New York City or in all the big cities.

I say eight-five or below is all right; some people don't get the grades but they have a certain energy and ability that they can devote to one particular thing.

MILDRED GUILFOYLE: I think particularly we are in school for an education and after all if we cannot get the best of our education, things that are offered to us, we cannot do the very best for our school, and although everyone becomes a student leader does not have to be an honor student at the same time he should attain a fairly good average because average intelligence is needed to handle the sort of jobs that the student leaders are taking on in high school to-day.

DR. FRETWELL: I don't know whether we are going to cover all the questions or not. I shall take one more:

Do you prefer planned home-room programs other than entertainment for the longer home-room period? Do you like home-room programs planned or what do you want?

RICHARD LITTLE: Well in Empire at the beginning of the semester there is a bulletin that comes out and it gives the programs that we are

supposed to have the different weeks and every other week we are supposed to have a program, it says what it is to be during this time and the home-room committee that has been appointed goes and gets reference material and looks it up and then on a certain day gives the program, and we find that this is very successful in Empire, because it takes up most of the interesting things, and also it brings out entertainment once in a while.

RUSSOL MYERS: I think planned programs are good but sometimes your plans go wrong in school, so you cannot have it too definite. We usually find our programs go over very big and that is what counts in the home-room period.

EDGAR BECKER: I should say that a planned program in advance would be the best thing, such as teaching pupils how to study, would be a main home-room project during the semester which would be beneficial both for the student and for the teacher.

DR. FRETWELL: To live up to our end of the agreement, in respect to time I will make it very brief on the summary.

There are one or two things briefly that I want to say. First, as I see it from the young people's point of view, and the adults' point of view, we are trying through this means as through other means of the school to provide an opportunity for educative experiences on the part of these people who are learning. I think it has come out in this afternoon's session that guidance and supervision and teaching are just as necessary in learning these arts of citizenship as is teaching in algebra or in Latin or something else.

Probably we recognize that teaching and guidance in these learning fields that the young people are talking about namely how to be responsible, how to assume responsibility, how to lead, how to get along with other people, that teaching in those fields, guidance in those fields is harder probably than any other kind of guidance, and teaching in the world.

I call on all parents to back me up on that point, because that is what we are trying to do in the family home room.

Again, it is perfectly plain to me as has come out from our discussion here that we are desirous of running well organized, well ordered, efficient schools. It seems to me that there are just two dominant ideas in the mind of folks like you adults and myself, and I think our young friends here: in this field in two things—one through the extra-curriculum activities, which is only a part of the school work in the direction of a well-ordered widely participated in society, that is in an efficient school; on the other hand to give people an opportunity to contribute to the school—all of them—to have not only to contribute, but to have the will to contri-

bute, and not only the will, but the developing of ability to contribute, and I think that is what this thing is all about.

These people of increasingly good-will, share in making decisions up to the level of their ability or a little beyond, maybe, and it is in this field that we are so concerned, and I thank all of you in this group, Miss Parmenter, thank you very much, and I thank the principals behind you.

If I were the Old Lady who Lived in the Shoe, if I had all you children I wouldn't have too many, I would just like a gang like you to live with [applause] and I think I might tell the ladies and gentlemen of the panel that to those at least of my age and experience—and this is my quarter century in attending these meetings—that this has been to me one of the most delightful and refreshing experiences that I have had in any of these meetings here, and I think, by the way, the ideas flew about as rapidly this afternoon as at any time in the meetings, especially in those meetings where I read a paper.

Thank you all very much.

. . . the session adjourned at four-twenty p. m. o'clock. . . .

THIRD GENERAL SESSION

Tuesday, February 28, 2:30 P. M.

The third session was called to order by K. J. Clark, Principal of Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama, and First Vice President of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, who introduced Principal F. L. Bacon of Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, the Chairman of the Planning Committee and he presented an abridgment of his report, printed below:

THE PURPOSES AND POLICIES OF THE PLANNING COMMITTEE

Francis L. Bacon
Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

A number of factors contributed to the origin of the Committee on Planning and the general attitude of uncertainty following the precipitation in 1929 of the period of economic distress no doubt had some influence. However, there had been repeated suggestions over a fairly long period which pointed to the need of a central planning body. In 1936, these suggestions came to specific proposals and the Executive Committee established a Committee on Planning at the time of the St. Louis Convention, February, 1936.

The first statement of purpose indicated the need for an overview analysis of the Department in relation to its status, program of work, and future development. Hitherto the growth in membership had been possibly the outstanding accomplishment. The rise of the roll of members from the smallest of beginnings to a total constituting the largest department in the National Education Association had been uniformly steady over a period of some twenty years. This gradual growth it seems was due to the excellent ability and character of the leadership, as ably reflected in many effective ways by the Executive Secretary, the officers and the members of the Executive Committee, rather than by a well-defined long time view or according to a planned design worked out in advance.

The department grew up, it would appear, and with maturity it became concerned with the problems incident to a worthy career. The mere process of acquiring a membership was no longer sufficient. Questions to be considered; values to be determined; programs of work to be outlined; functional operations to be planned, arose as items of major concern and thus it was apparent that a special central agency was necessary. The Planning Committee was the result.

It was understood, from the first, that the Committee on Planning was created by the Executive Committee as a permanent agency to serve as a constant source of planning and long-term consideration of the best interests of the Department. In respect to the Executive Committee the new body was to act in an advisory and recommending capacity except as specific jurisdiction and instruction were indicated by the Executive Committee. This initial policy has been carried out. A number of joint meetings of the Executive and Planning Committees testify to the successful coördinative relationship.

In the beginning by means of survey, correspondence, and deliberation the Committee was able to formulate a program including plans both for immediate and for future development. These plans and policies follow:

1. *The Interpretation and Extension of the Reports of the Committee on Orientation.* The Committee on Orientation was in the process of completing its significant reports at the time of the Planning Committee's origin. These reports were far too important to permit mere distribution, perhaps cursory reading, and the filing away to be forgotten according to the customary routine. The initial work of the Committee was directed to an immediate plan to stimulate discussion, evaluation, and study of the Issues and Functions of Secondary Education as prepared by the Committee on Orientation. The design as worked out was to bring the problems, issues, functions and objectives of secondary education to the attention of both the educational and lay fields in the hope that educational service everywhere might be thereby improved.

These reports constituted a new set of objectives for secondary education: accompanied by an explanatory background; a resolution of the issues; an indication of the problems with directional philosophies; the essential foundations for the development of a modern program of secondary education; a set of criteria for the evaluation of educational theory and practice. The Committee believed that here was a program which preeminently deserved thorough-going follow-up procedure and plans were formulated accordingly. For the first time a national report in secondary education received a definite and persistent follow-up and a designed machinery for extended study and interpretation. The effectiveness of this first plan of the committee has been amply exemplified in many ways.

2. *Finding the Most Significant Problems.* A second major purpose was to ascertain the specific needs and the problems facing principals in the field and to relate these, in so far as practicable, with the general design of orientation as set forth in the reports. This effect resulted in bringing into focus certain problems of immediate concern and also of such nature as suggested further study and analysis. Study materials were prepared and distributed for a number of these problems.

Thus was indicated, to the Committee, what seemed to be the beginning of the vastly important common attack of the secondary-school administrators upon the problems with which they are most concerned. These beginning experiences seemed sufficiently clear to justify the long-time planning of a nationally coördinated scheme for the consideration and experimentation of the most significant problems. It appeared that a successful program on this front should produce results sufficiently wide in scope and specific in character to give certainty to the factors involved and to the best practices indicated.

It, therefore, became the policy of the Committee to favor the development of a program of coöperative discussion and research with the hope that the central office might become a clearing house for the discovery of the most acute problems, the promotion of projects which promise helpful experimentation, and the distribution of best practices.

3. *The Development of Discussion Groups.* An early policy of the Planning Committee has been to foster the growth of the small discussion group. Isolated examples and somewhat meager evidence of the potentiality within the discussion group method was apparent but it remained for suitable recognition to vitalize the possibilities. In this the plans of the Committee have been amazingly realized. A remarkable impetus has been given to the idea with a resulting nation-wide movement not only within the plans for the Department but in many manifestations in other organizations both lay and educational. The recent programs of national conventions bear abundant witness to the growth of the conception of discussion by groups. It was this Department which first announced the discussion plan on a wide scale and first presented it before a convention of the National Education Association.

The plan of the Committee in making available a pamphlet on the technique of group discussion entitled "Talking It Through" has been of considerable service in suggesting ways and means for aiding the discussion-group movement. The October, 1938, No. 76 BULLETIN of the Department is also especially allotted to Discussion Group reports on purposes, plans, techniques, references and accomplishments. Further plans of the Committee include the preparation of additional material with particular design for combined use by educators and laymen.

The main purpose lying within the plan for developing discussion groups is to promote a means whereby the secondary-school principal and other members of the Department may make known their problems, discuss them, formulate them for further analysis and research, and send them to the national office. Here it is hoped materials will be prepared and distributed which will be of particular value for use by the discussion groups thus affording an opportunity for wide coöperative research and

interpretation. It is apparent that much significance can result with findings, interpretations, solutions coming from such a broad and concerted attack. To better accomplish this end it has therefore become the plan to further the affiliation of local, regional, and state groups with the National organization. It is desirable that new groups within regions will be formed in order to develop the mutual helpfulness of concentration and that additional groups will be created in new areas so that a larger number of principals and schools may profit by the coöperative plan.

4. *The Washington Office.* It early became apparent that a closer affiliation with the National Education Association would be desirable. The mutual advantages were obvious. Accordingly the opportunity was accepted for the establishment of an office for the Department of Secondary-School Principals in the building of the National Education Association in Washington, D. C. This development has proved most successful in the carrying out of plans for the discussion-group project. Pleasant relations and much aid have come from the general or parental organization; and helpful contacts have come from other departments and with other educational organizations centering in Washington.

It would appear that future plans should include the further extension of Departmental activities from the Washington office looking toward a gradual, if not immediate, centralization of all of the work of the Department in the Washington office. Thus would increasingly significant relations with the headquarters of many national departments and organizations be made more conveniently and successfully operative.

5. *Coördinative Effort with Other National Organizations.* In the preceding topic indication was given to a desirable trend for wider coördinative relationships. The Planning Committee believes that not only the past but the existing tendency toward isolated efforts, both within horizontal levels and perpendicular channels, in the various fields of educational endeavor is open to serious question.

The Committee is interested in creating a policy for the mutual consideration of common problems and of coördinating attempts for their solution. It has already taken a number of steps toward a larger realization of such a policy. For example, a joint project has been outlined with the National Congress of Parent Teachers. An outline of the possibilities for joint procedure has been prepared and has received a favorable reaction from the executive body of that organization. It is hoped that this project will be carried forward so that principals in the field will have a common program to work out with their local parent-teacher organizations jointly sponsored by the two national organizations.

Another example of the same intent was a suggestion made to the Educational Policies Commission of the American Association of School

Administrators that this Department would welcome an opportunity to be a part, even a small one, of what obviously would seem to be a significant chance for a wide and meaningful coördination of the Departments of the National Education Association on common problems and projects. The tremendous achievement already made by this Department toward the recognition and interpretation of the later announced objectives of the Superintendents' Association would appear to emphasize desirable coöperation. With so much talk about democracy in administration, in fact, within all educational effort—and with such obvious need for suitable recognition and development it is clearly apparent that our departmental policy should be manifestly clear and that we should make every reasonable effort toward coöperative effort no matter the unfortunate attitudes encountered.

Another example of our current effort is the happy relationship now going forward with the National Committee on Coördination in Secondary Education. It is believed that the mutual advantages may be large.

The Committee is taking a long-term view of coördinative effort and promises the most careful consideration to such opportunities as may be offered to the Department or as may be created by the initiative of the Committee.

6. *Coördinative Relations with State Secondary-School Associations.* Prior to the work of the Planning Committee a plan of affiliated membership between state associations and the National Department had been worked out with considerable success. However, the plan ended with the advantage of a saving in the combined dues and the membership services accruing therefrom. With the development of the discussion-group project came a plan for a truly significant affiliation of the national and state organizations. Certain advantages within a more direct and meaningful relationship are obvious enough but the promise appears even greater than anticipated.

A natural development of the Committee Policy for State Coördinators has been the investiture of these officers with a portfolio from the State Associations. Another logical step has been the adoption of the discussion group idea as an integral part of the State Association work. Interestingly enough the local discussion groups and the regional coördinators have become increasingly vital parts of the state programs. Thus the national and state plans have mutually stimulated and vitalized each other. Not the least advantage has been the creation of important positions and activities of participation within the several regions and within the states for men who deserve such opportunities for wider leadership and service. This, too, should provide a most significant realization of a greatly increased personnel for positions of national representation and leadership.

The Committee wishes to establish a policy devoutly helpful in all matters that will enrich the coördinative efforts thus briefly described. It looks forward hopefully to a program of increasing interchange of state and national services.

7. *Improvement of Educational Practice.* Early in the thinking of those who worked out the Orientation Reports and in the planning of the new committee appeared the necessity for the putting of the Issues and the Functions into operative practice. Undoubtedly this should be a logical last step. Implementation was finally agreed upon as the most representative word. The Planning Committee, after due consideration, recommended the appointment of a Committee on Implementation. In the words of Dr. Will French, the chairman, implementation became "an outgrowth of the Department's effort under the guidance of the Planning Committee, to give continuity and cohesiveness to its program. It was a logical next step in the Department's program of seeking to improve American secondary education through the study of its purposes, problems, and programs."

This agency of implementation has now been under way for several months and has already outlined a most significant approach to the general problem of the practical interpretation of the best theory in terms of the actual improvement of practice in the field. To achieve the goal thus announced is a major purpose of the Committee on Planning and it ardently hopes that all of its policies and plans will conspire to such end.

The work of this Committee on Implementation may, in the judgment of the planning body, actually produce the most important accomplishment in the history of the Department. It is the strong purpose of the Planning Committee to give this implementation effort all possible support and for this endeavor is sought the most favorable reaction and, indeed, the personal aid of all members of the Department.

8. *New Committees.* In its early work consideration was given by the Committee to special phases of the Department's program which might well receive the careful attention of specific committees. It was agreed that a desirable policy would be to create a wide opportunity for participation by the membership of the Department. Evidence has already been given elsewhere of this policy.

In this particular connection, it was believed that the publications of the Department might well be improved. Accordingly a special Committee on Publications was recommended. The successful accomplishments of this effort has been witnessed in the extent and character of the Service Bulletin and in the launching of the new publication "Student Life." Aid relative to publications was also given to the National Honor Society as it is a specific project of the Department.

Another special committee on Student Activities was created designed to study and report on policies for the guidance of the Department and its individual members relative to the major considerations in this rather confused field. The growth of a number of state and national student organizations outside of the regular educational agencies; the problem of student convention attendance; the increasing significance of student participation in administration; the relationship of our state and national secondary-school principals' organizations to these problems constitute a few of the major questions involved.

The report of this Committee deserves much consideration and in the judgment of the planning body this committee should either be authorized to continue its work with increased instructions or a new follow-up committee should be appointed. It is believed that in this area are problems which require long-term consideration and planning.

It will also be the purpose to recommend other special committees from time to time for specific jobs which need to be done. Suggestions from the field relative to such work will be most welcome.

9. *Reorganization of the Machinery for Elected Personnel.* The Committee has submitted to the Executive Body proposals for improvement of the methods of selecting officers. Now that the Department membership has become truly national, the Departmental projects of great significance, and extensive participation by members rapidly developing it seems especially desirable that our selection of the most able leaders should be reasonably assured. The Committee also believes that the Department's policy should embrace the most democratic procedures consistent with the widest possible opportunities for representation, good faith, and suitable efficiency.

It will be the purpose of the Planning Committee to offer other proposals from time to time designed to improve the operation of the constitutional machinery in the light of the program of work and the wishes of the membership.

10. *Financial Policy.* The national program now going forward requires large financial support, if it is to be truly effective. The remarkable progress already made has been largely due to the beneficent subvention of the General Education Board. The Committee hopes that the unusual significance of the program now going forward and the even greater promise in the program as planned will bring additional financial aid from outside sources. However, there can be no guarantee to this desire and there are indications that the foundations are so changing their policies that further aid will be out of the question.

It would appear entirely reasonable that the Department should be sufficiently interested in its own place among the great professional organi-

zations of education and in the peculiar services which only a national plan may give to make reasonable efforts to provide necessary funds. The membership dues are low in comparison with other national organizations which offer comparable services and the dues alone could never have supported the program and services of recent years. The income other than dues, chiefly from the National Honor Society, and also from other special sources has not only been the means of developing the work of the Department but has permitted the building up of a significant reserve.

The Committee believes that all these sources of income should be continued and developed under the direction of the Department; that a reasonable reserve should be maintained; that in view of the desirability of the more meaningful program of service now going forward and its enlarged cost, the membership dues should be classified according to the plan proposed to the Executive Committee.

11. *Future Planning*. This Committee feels that a mere beginning has been made. A look ahead calls for persistently continued planning. In the foregoing only a few of the possibilities have been briefly indicated. It is hoped that this report will be suggestive of the important services which this new Committee may bring to the department. If the needed financial assistance can be secured to permit the Committee to continue its program, many additional projects could be planned for which there are definite needs and demands. In some form or other certain needs in secondary education are going to be met. If some organization such as the Department of Secondary-School Principals which can focus on the development of a program all the insight, imagination, and experience that the professional background of many teachers and school administrators affords, does not assume positive leadership by meeting these needs with a real program, haphazard plans are certain to emerge and serious obstacles are sure to be placed in the way of the future development of secondary education.

The chairman then presented Dr. Will French, who introduced Truman G. Reed, Principal of Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane Washington. Mr. Reed read Frances T. Spaulding's programmed paper, *Educational Problems Causing Administrators Most Concern During the Past Two Years.* All regretted that severe illness caused Professor Spaulding's absence.

EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS CAUSING ADMINISTRATORS MOST CONCERN DURING THE PAST TWO YEARS

F. T. SPAULDING
Harvard University

The first part of this report is a report of progress by the Department's Committee on Implementation.

Under the chairmanship of Dr. Will French, of Teachers College, the Implementation Committee began active work shortly after the winter meeting of the Department at Atlantic City in 1938. At the time of its establishment the Committee had been assigned no clearly defined duties. Its general responsibility, as the Committee itself interpreted that responsibility at its first meeting, is to furnish all possible assistance to the members of the Department in putting into effect in their schools the program of secondary education which will most directly meet current educational needs. The Committee believes that it can be of greatest service, not by attempting to assist at the outset with a great variety of problems, but by dealing with one major educational function or issue at a time.

To make sure that from the beginning it is offering as much real help as possible, the Committee plans to give first attention to the problems regarded as most pressing by high-school principals in general. Reports from two of the Eastern states have offered a clue to what these problems are. In 1936 the New York State Regents' Inquiry asked each high-school principal in New York State to define the two or three educational problems which had recently caused him most concern in the administration of his school. Replies were received from nearly two-thirds of the 985 New York State principals; the replies most often mentioned problems connected with the improvement and expansion of the program of studies, the problem of meeting the needs of pupils for whom the conventional academic program is inappropriate, standing out more prominently than any other. In 1938 the seven hundred members of the discussion groups organized by the Department of Secondary-School Principals in Pennsylvania voted to concentrate their attention on this same problem—the problem occasioned by the increasing numbers of high-school boys and girls who are not interested in academic studies or not able to meet the usual academic standards.

The Committee has wanted a wider expression of judgment, however, than that represented by reports from only two of the forty-eight states. Accordingly, it enlisted the aid of the coördinators in charge of discussion groups in the other forty-six states and the District of Columbia, in sending out last November a brief questionnaire similar to that used in the New York study. Members of the Department and certain other high-school principals were asked a single very general question: "What one or two problems in the conduct of your educational program have caused you most concern within the last year or two years?" One thousand nine hundred ninety principals, representing all the states to which the questionnaire was sent, replied to this question. Their replies furnished the Committee with 3863 separate statements of problems. Many of these statements had been formulated, according to reports from the principals, on the basis of faculty discussion in the local schools; so that the replies represent a consensus of opinion among many more individuals than the 1990 principals who responded. The replies have been analyzed for the Committee by Mr. Robert Patrick, a graduate student in education at Teachers College. Mr. Patrick's summary, which the Committee may be able later to publish in full, provides the major factual basis for this report.

The replies have made it evident that the problem of meeting the needs of non-academic pupils is of paramount concern to high-school principals everywhere. More than half the principals who listed their chief problems for the Committee listed problems connected with revision of the curriculum; and of the replies which definitely indicated the types of pupils for whom the need for curriculum revision was acute, three out of every four specified dull pupils, or non-academic pupils, or non-college pupils. How widely and how keenly this problem is felt may perhaps be suggested by quotations from some of the statements which the Committee has received. From California a principal writes: "What provision can be made by a high school (without increasing the school budget greatly) for students who must attend school until the age of sixteen, but who are mentally incapable of handling any high-school work, even in 'retarded' classes?" Three thousand miles away, in Connecticut, a junior high-school principal asks: "How shall we meet the needs of low mentality pupils who 'do not like school' and for whom industry has no place?" An Ohio principal states the problem somewhat differently: "The most difficult problem this school faces is to find suitable material for the over-age, low I. Q. pupil and get the community to accept it." Again, from Maryland: "How can we provide for those who cannot or will not profit by the formal type of education but who are under the compulsory school age?" And, from Missouri (appropriately enough), perhaps the most troubled plaint of all: "Who is the non-academic student and what can the small high school do for him?"

Because the problem of the non-academic pupil comes so clearly to the front in the majority of these statements, the Committee intends to deal immediately with this problem. Its plan is first to canvass educational literature for promising suggestions as to methods of teaching, curriculum materials, and forms of school and class organization which will meet the needs of young people who properly belong in the secondary school but who are not likely to profit by the conventional curriculum. Having brought together what seem to be the best suggestions for adapting the school program to these young people, the Committee intends to summarize these suggestions in a special handbook which will be sent to members of the Department. Principals who receive this handbook will be asked to comment critically on the various plans which it describes, from the standpoint of the practicability of these plans and of their effectiveness in individual schools which have tried them out. Principals will be asked also to describe any plans with which they are familiar, which seem to them more promising than the plans outlined in the handbook.

At the same time that the handbook is being prepared and circulated, the Committee hopes to develop a method of evaluating objectively the provisions which individual schools may be making for non-academic pupils. If a sound method of evaluation can be developed, the Committee intends to ask the coöperation of members of the Department in actually testing the effectiveness of various programs. Through all these means the Committee hopes eventually to be able to recommend to the members of the Department certain plans which have stood the test both of critical appraisal by administrators and teachers, and of actual trial under a wide variety of circumstances.

This is an ambitious program. Various factors—lack of funds, the difficulty of finding a method of appraising school programs objectively and convincingly, the human shortcomings of the members of the Committee—may enter in to prevent its complete fulfillment. The program has been so devised, however, as to accord with what Professor Briggs calls the principle of "so far forth": the principle that each succeeding part of a constructive program should be of value in itself, even though the program may not be completed in its entirety.

The work that the Committee has already done would seem, in fact, to be of some value in itself, beyond the value it has had in suggesting to the Committee the problems with which to begin. Mr. Patrick's analysis of the whole range of problems suggested by members of the Department brings to light a number of significant trends in the thinking of high-school principals throughout the United States. It may be appropriate to summarize certain of these trends, because they point to matters which the Department of Secondary-School Principals, as a professional body,

ought to recognize about itself. The rest of this report will therefore be devoted not to an elaboration of the plans of the Implementation Committee but to brief comments on some of the replies which the Committee received to its request for statements of problems. For these comments the speaker, and not the Implementation Committee, is responsible.

One of the most obvious conclusions to be drawn from the replies in general is that high-school principals are by no means of a single mind with respect to the problems most needing attack. The problems reported in response to the Committee's questionnaire were classified according to the major areas which the problems themselves suggested, rather than according to a fixed and predetermined scheme of grouping. Fifty-five per cent of the principals listed problems in connection with the improvement of the curriculum, and thirty-six per cent of all the problems described fell under this head. But the remaining problems were scattered over fourteen major areas: the aims of the secondary school, the development of more effective methods of teaching, the provision of an effective extra-curriculum program, the maintenance of appropriate educational standards, provisions for educational and vocational guidance, the extension of the school program to meet the needs of out-of-school groups, the supervision of instruction, provision of an adequate teaching staff, the securing of adequate buildings, equipment, and supplies, local financial problems, the development of effective relations with the local community, school district organization, relationships with the state education department, and a host of problems concerned with various aspects of internal organization and administration.

It is not to be denied that problems in any one of these fields may be of paramount importance in individual schools. The principal who writes: "We have no questions at present that cannot be solved with additional financial aid," may be unduly optimistic in certain respects, but the difficulties with which he is struggling can be easily imagined by any one who is trying to administer a secondary school in these days of pared budgets. Nor can one question the probable local importance of the problem which lies behind another principal's laconic statement: "Lack of rooms," or of that which leads a small-town principal to ask: "Just how closely shall I endeavor to supervise the social activities of the members of my teaching staff?" Probably just as important, in the school in which it arises, is the problem which occasions the question: "How much time should student activities take during the regular school day?" And few people will fail to sympathize with the principal who complains: "We have had a system of awarding a block letter with pearls at graduation, for all activities including scholarship, athletics, band, dramatics, attendance, etc. The thing grows greater year by year, and we are wondering how to stop its momentum."

The chief significance of the great diversity in replies is that it leads one to suspect that high-school principals as a group may not yet be sufficiently like-minded to be ready for a concerted attack on problems of fundamental and universal importance. If the heads of our secondary schools are to exercise successfully the professional leadership which may fairly be expected of them, they ought not necessarily to see eye to eye, but they ought certainly to be looking in the same major directions. The Department is now trying to build up a degree of professional congruence among its members by promoting the widespread discussion of its reports on the issues of American secondary education and on the functions of the secondary school. There is ample ground, in the statements of problems from the schools, to urge that the work of the discussion groups be continued and extended.

A second conclusion to be drawn from the replies to the questionnaire is that many high-school principals are seriously exercised over the spread of "progressive" education. Their replies suggest various degrees of uncertainty and even of alarm: "How progressive is 'progressive' education?" "Is it possible to be progressive and still be looked on as conservative?" "Is progressive education sound or is it a passing fad?" "How 'progressive' should a school be that is primarily interested in developing a sound educational program?" "Are we ready to throw out the idea of formal discipline in our schools until we are sure that the proposed substitutes (i. e., 'progressive education') are better?" "How may we best combat the chaos resulting from the 'soft' ideals and methods now so prevalent?" "I believe in many of the principles advocated by the right wing leaders of progressive education. I think it is high time, however (that) the left wing radicals are brought into the open and made to declare their true backing."

Most of the statements about progressive education lack any definition of what the writers mean by the term. That secondary-school principals should be not altogether sure of what progressive education may imply for their schools is hardly surprising, in view of the history of the movement. Developing at first out of a concern for elementary-school practice, the movement for progressive education has only recently become prominent in secondary schools. Whatever the explanation of their present uncertainty about progressive education, however, and whether the movement may eventually be judged good or bad, high-school principals ought to be thoroughly familiar with what it means and with the directions in which it is tending. The statements submitted to the Implementation Committee suggest the great desirability of some closer contact between the Progressive Education Association and the Department of Secondary-School Principals, in order that each group may better understand the other's problems and policies.

A third important conclusion is that though secondary-school principals are often highly critical of the influence of the non-school agencies which are trying to meet the needs of out-of-school young people, the secondary schools themselves are at present giving little constructive attention to these needs. The feeling appears to be widely prevalent that government efforts to provide for young people who are out of school and out of work are having a bad effect on the character of the young people concerned: "The WPA attitude seems to be permeating all of us." "What can be done to combat the general idea that the school is a place to have a good time, and that when one graduates there is always a PWA or a WPA or a CCC in which one can find employment?" "What can we do with the increasing number of students who are thinking that it is the government's duty to take care of them?" Yet secondary-school principals are for the most part continuing to limit their own attention to such educational problems as crop up within the school's four walls. Of the nearly two thousand principals who replied to the Committee's questionnaire, only thirty-eight reported that they were concerned with the extension of the secondary-school program to meet the needs of out-of-school groups not now adequately served; and among the problems listed under this head, three out of five dealt merely with high-school postgraduates.

Three years ago, in its report on Issues in Secondary Education, the Department's Committee on Orientation pointed out that few school officers had taken any leading part in the effort to solve the problems with which various government agencies—the NYA and the CCC in particular—were dealing. The Department has thus far failed to act on the Orientation Committee's implied recommendation. So long as school people avoid any active concern with the problems of out-of-school young people—problems, it should be noted, which are in many respects essentially educational—criticisms by school people of the solutions which others have proposed and are trying to put into effect have small right to be heard. The Department of Secondary-School Principals ought to have a keen interest in the solution of such problems. If it actually has such an interest, the time would seem to be more than ripe for an overt expression of that interest through the adoption of some plan by which the Department may coöperate positively and constructively in meeting the needs of out-of-school boys and girls.

One final conclusion, somewhat happier than those already reported, stands out from the analysis of the secondary schools' problems. The replies from the schools place unmistakable emphasis on the schools' growing awareness of the need to teach, act, administer, and indoctrinate for democracy. This awareness is variously expressed: "Democratic institutions are under fire. What methods (can best be) used to make the high school exemplify the democratic way of life?" "How can democracy be taught in

school so that it will function in the lives of students?" "What can we do to make high-school boys and girls more intelligent about the problems of society, including the problems of city, state, nation, and world?" "How can we inspire in our youth to-day a respect for the democratic way of life, and make the student 'evangelistic' if you please in the cause of the preservation and the perpetuation of the democratic way of life?" "Shall we use the schools to indoctrinate pupils with the principles of democracy, as the dictators (for other purposes) are using their schools?"

Education for citizenship and character education together—and the schools often regard the two as inseparable—are mentioned as phases of the curriculum with which the schools are particularly concerned, nearly twice as often as any other part of the curriculum. The Department will certainly approve this emphasis. Moreover, as occasion permits, the Department will undoubtedly wish to take advantage of opportunities to coöperate actively with other organizations which are giving systematic study to the problem of education for American citizenship.

These various conclusions are by no means all that may properly be drawn from the statements of problems which the Implementation Committee has received. Yet these particular conclusions seem sufficiently important to deserve special mention. It is to be hoped that in its formulation of plans for the future the Department may give particular attention to the need for pressing on with the work of its regional discussion groups; to the desirability of a better understanding of the movement for progressive education; to the failure of any prominent group of secondary-school people thus far to adopt a constructive policy with respect to the needs of out-of-school young people; and to the fact that education for citizenship is, and deserves to be, a matter for serious concern in connection with the general improvement of the secondary-school curriculum.

Meanwhile the Implementation Committee will undertake to devote its own best efforts to assisting in the solution of the problem which is most on the minds of a majority of the members of the Department: the problem of devising methods of teaching, curriculum materials, and plans of school organization to meet the special needs of "non-academic" boys and girls of high-school age.

DISCUSSION

Chairman Clark introduced Mr. Walter E. Myer, Director of the Discussion Group Project, of Washington, D. C., who acted as Chairman in the Demonstration and Discussion which followed.

Mr. Walter E. Myer, Director of the Discussion Group Project, introduced Principal Frank P. Whitney, who conducted the Demonstration and Discussion of the topic *The Guidance Function* participated in by his faculty group from Collinwood High School, Cleveland:

CHAIRMAN MYER: I think that most of you are familiar in a general way with what is being done in the discussion groups.

It was the idea, at first, as Mr. Bacon has said, that the Issues and Functions would be brought before the principals of the country so that they would not merely gather dust on the shelves as so many reports do; and it seemed an appropriate thing that the administrators should be gathered into groups for the purpose of systematic and sustained discussion of these Issues and Functions as they have been outlined by a committee of eminent educators.

Machinery was set up, coördinators were appointed in all the states and regional directors, and the principals for the most part were gathered into groups for the purpose of discussing these Issues and Functions.

Then the idea developed of carrying it much farther than that, of having permanent machinery whereby the administrators and the teachers might discuss effectively whatever problem seemed to them at the time to be most important, because it was recognized that after a while we would be through with an active discussion of these particular Issues and Functions, but it was hoped that the machinery would be permanent, so that the educators would be in a position quickly to respond to any problem they might have, and give it sustained and close attention. It is hoped that this machinery will be permanent, but it was carried farther than that.

The idea developed of carrying it into the faculties themselves so that the teachers as well as the administrators might have a part in discussing the theories and practices of education, and so, during the last two years, between a thousand and two thousand high schools have written in to the Washington office telling us that they are prepared to carry on professional discussion of this kind in their faculty meetings, or a part of their faculty meetings, and then the idea is going still farther, and that is that after the administrators and the teachers have practiced and learned the art of discussion—again quoting Mr. Bacon—for it is an art and a very difficult art—when they have learned that they will carry it down into their classrooms and teach the young people how to think collectively and by this process not only do something for education, but also take steps which will enable the young citizens to meet the difficult problems of democracy through the process of coöperative thinking.

But now, as I say, there are a thousand or two thousand faculties around over the land under the leadership of their principals, who are discussing important problems. Unquestionably one of the problems is that of guidancce, whatever it may be, and it is a somewhat confused matter, and a little vague. But many of the faculties are talking about guidance, and so we are going to have a faculty here, or a portion of a

faculty of the Collinwood High School of Cleveland, under the direction of Mr. Frank P. Whitney, the Principal, carry on a discussion of The Guidance Function.

MR. WHITNEY: This group consists of two or three assistant principals, two or three advisors and two or three or four department chairmen and some sponsors; I think someone from every department in the school, so that it is a cross section of the faculty of Collinwood High School—not particularly cross but a section of the faculty. [Laughter]

No particular instructions have been given to them except that no one is to make a speech, that is going to be pretty difficult, I suppose—for me to stop anyone, but no one is to make a long speech, not more than two minutes, anyway, please.

There are a good many questions. I don't know what this thing is going to result in. I enter upon it with much fear and trepidation, and I may want to retire quickly at the close because of the reputation of the school.

I thought perhaps we ought to have a little plan, maybe it is this: that we may present a little about the function of guidance as it works, perhaps distribution. Somebody has a good word now. Instead of selective function the high school has a distributive function.

I think we will start right in here throwing out a question—

MR. GRAHAM [Interrupting]: I do not care to interrupt your speech but you are not supposed to talk more than two minutes either as I understand it.

I would like to begin at the beginning of this function.

We have had life-career conferences at Collinwood. These children come to me and they say: We were never told at any time what your curriculum was in the senior high school; we have no knowledge of what to expect; no one has thrown open these doors and given us a peek into the future.

It seems to me that ought to be done, Mr. Whitney, somewhere before the senior high school. I would like to raise the question of what educational guidance is given these children let us say in the ninth grade.

MR. WHITNEY: Mr. Graham caught me by surprise. I did not know he was ready with that. Is there any one here willing to take up the question?

Mr. Shattuck is one of the advisors, he ought to know the answer.

MR. SHATTUCK: Yes, we accumulate all the evidence we can in the ninth grade, especially in the 9A.

First of all we try to learn all that we can about the pupil's ability as based on tests. We find his intelligence rating, based on the Cleveland classification test. We have his scholastic achievement rating as based on his 9B grades. We have the grade of his reading ability as based on the

Iowa reading test. Then we get all the information we can based on pupil experiences: What is his favorite subject? What is his vocational interest? What is his special interest? What is his special ability?

Then we try to learn all that we can about his home environment: What are the economic and social conditions of the home and what are his educational aims?

Most of this information is gathered by the home-room teacher from records and also from visits to the home and conferences with parents and with pupils.

After that we feel that we can give the pupil a pretty good bit of advice as to his senior high school.

QUESTION: Mr. Shattuck, what do you do when you find someone who makes a choice so obviously out of line with his capacities that something ought to be done to prevent him from wasting a lot of time?

MR. WHITNEY: Suppose a boy wanted to be a lawyer, who wanted to take college preparatory mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

ANSWER: Of course if the parents insist they may take the course they wish to take; however, most parents when you show them what the record and achievement has been and talk over the probability of the child as based upon records and achievements, you don't have very much difficulty in persuading them that the child should not take those more difficult courses. Yet there is nothing in the world to prevent a pupil from trying it. However, there may be a semester lost.

Q. That is fine in the ninth grade, but does that carry over into the senior high school? I would like to know about their choices, if they make a selection to take a commercial course of study, Mrs. McInnerny?

MR. WHITNEY: Mr. Shattuck, will you explain what the elections are, what is the distribution, and what the courses?

MR. SHATTUCK: These people may choose academic, technical, commercial, or general courses. The academic is the college preparatory and cultural course. The boys and girls technical course involves majors in shop, home economics, art, or even music. The commercial course, to be explained later on, they make their choices in the tenth grade, as to what direction they are going into the commercial course.

Then pupils who do not have ability, which tests have shown that they do not have, may choose a general course which may be academic, technical, commercial also, but which are taught on a different level.

MR. WHITNEY: These are the non-academic people.

Now Mr. Goodekunz asks the question: If they get into the commercial course do they stick?

MRS. MCINNERNY: Surely, Mr. Goodekunz, you do not expect these can be the final choices for all pupils. Do you know that in our present 10B the median is about one-hundredth, but to make a statement for

some of these pupils that they are not capable of finding placement for work in the business world is neither acceptable nor convincing to some of them. So we believe that pupils should be given an opportunity to have a chance to try our skilled subjects which we offer, so all our tenth graders take typewriting. In addition the 10B's have a unit in bookkeeping, and another in shorthand. This really is a sort of proving ground. Toward the end of the semester we are in position to have individual conferences with these pupils, and by this time we have considerable objective evidence; in addition to this the pupil has an experimental background he has not had formerly; he is now in position to say to himself: Now was that choice I made in the 9A the wisest one for me? Have my successful experiences been adequate to meet the requirements of the occupational field or am I still interested in this sort of work? Or maybe I might consider rechecking my original plans, making modifications or changes.

We feel the plan we are operating now for the 10B's affords us a method of helping pupils make selections of the future study and specialization in harmony with their interests and capacities.

MR. WHITNEY: Do you feel that the tenth grade course is sort of a guidance course distributing pupils?

MRS. MCINNERNY: Yes.

A MEMBER: That seems to lead back to what I said before. Some people go into the commercial work who are not fitted obviously so to begin with; doesn't that mean that they have lost a year?

MR. WHITNEY: That might go back to the 9A guidance.

MR. SHATTUCK: Yes, there may be a loss of a year if they insist on entering into those courses of study which in spite of the advice given and in spite of the evidence shown, the parents will want them to take those courses.

MR. WHITNEY: Let's not ask so many questions about the failure of guidance, let's get on to the successes.

Mrs. McInnerny is head of the Commercial Department; she knows all there is to know about what we do in commercial work. What about technical work?

Q. I was wondering: Does Mrs. McInnerny ever arbitrarily refuse to allow people to go into stenography?

MRS. MCINNERNY: Oh no, Mr. Goodekunz; after all, public schools operate for children; if parents insist we let them, but we hope by the procedures we are following now we are eliminating the adjustments we will have to make in the eleventh grade. We will always have pupils who will experience repeated failures before they will concede that a modification of plan is necessary.

Q. To go back to the 9A guidance, what assurance do we have that the home-room teachers who administer the distributive feature of guid-

ance, have any knowledge of occupational information. That is: What abilities, what knowledges are necessary to go into certain occupations?

A. It seems to me that that is one of the really difficult problems in our school, particularly. The information that pupils get about occupations is derived mainly from units taught in the various courses, and from our career conferences, and it seems to me that that is not enough, that we ought to have more teaching about occupations, particularly fields of occupations. I don't know whether that answers your question or not.

Q. I would like to ask Mrs. McInnerny a question. I am going through the process at the present time, of guiding my home-room pupils in the 9A into a course of study for the senior high school. Although there seems to be a little difficulty in advising them and having them accept the advice to take the general course, I would say more than half of the girls in my home room want the commercial work. Would you say that it would be more advisable for me to guide them or perhaps try to steer them out of that commercial work before they get into it?

MRS. MCINNERNY: No, I do not believe you have a clear understanding of what is in the general course.

There is a possibility of a year of typewriting and a year of bookkeeping, but to the general pupil of level accomplishment, irrespective of his P. L. R. or I. Q., he cannot take the second year or specialization unless his accomplishment in the first year warrants it, so that your general pupil should by no manner of means be steered away from that because possibly what he will get there will be just as good as any other place in the school curriculum.

MR. WHITNEY: I wonder, Mr. Dietz, if you ought not explain what we are talking about, very briefly.

MR. DIETZ: A new division, really, of the three courses that we have, the commercial, technical, and academic courses, has recently been set up. We term this the general course. Here we lessen the requirements in the number of skilled subjects, that must be passed in order to graduate, allowing a much greater latitude, and also segregating these people into classes in the required subjects and presenting material in such a way as to become more attractive to persons who are not naturally addicted to book learning.

MR. WHITNEY: I don't think we left this vocational occupational information idea in very satisfactory shape. Is there anyone who wants to help us out here? It looks as if we are not doing very much. Maybe we are not.

Mr. Ladeaux is in the shop department; Do these boys get any information anywhere along the line about occupations? Occupational opportunities?

A. I believe that most all the people in our group understand that the objective of our curriculum for our technical boys is to give a broad training rather than a highly specific training. During the time—up until the eleventh grade, our boys all receive training in different types of work, namely: sheet metal work, cabinet work, mechanical drawing, pattern shop, foundry, machine shop, and automobile mechanics. In each of these classes the teacher takes up and discusses the relation of that industry to the industries outside; they make a lot of field trips through the different types of plants, so that these boys receive a very good idea of the types of industries in our location and I think have a very good idea of how to make their selection in their twelfth grade which is highly specializing work. There they have four periods each day of industrial work which may be elected from these which they had training in previously.

MR. WHITNEY: That is all right for the boys who get into courses—those who don't get in, don't get any information.

A. Not very much; the boys who have elected this work have discovered in the junior high school that they have an aptitude for technical training and they are the ones who are preparing to go into industry when they have gone from the high school.

Q. What do you do with the boys who do not specialize?

A. That is one of the problems we have confronting us at the present time. We have a number of the low P. L. R. boys whom we cull into the general group, who in my opinion should never go into one of our high specializing school classes, but should have a new type of work set up for them which is more of a crafts class rather than high specialized.

MR. WHITNEY: Does anyone have a question about the girls' work? The technical work for girls?

Q. Mr. Whitney, this question is going to upset Miss Hawkins, but with her approval I shall ask it anyway, because I do not think that the technical people have a right to throw people out because of their low P. L. R.; I don't know about the boys, but with the girls it is a very important thing, and I have an answer, and I am leaving it up to Miss Hawkins to settle it.

MR. WHITNEY: Miss Hawkins is head of the home economics department; she is the one who is getting it just now. Miss Hotchkiss just teaches French. [Laughter]

MISS HOTCHKISS: I am also a home-room teacher, Mr. Whitney, and it is as a home-room teacher I am coming to this setup. I have a girl with an I. Q. of below eighty; it is a very low I. Q. She came to my setup in the 10B with a very good general plan, and it suited her ability. She is in a class where she gets her English and everything she needs. Then she has to choose a major, an elective major for three years of high-school

work, so she chose commercial—she wanted it. She was set up with it against the advice of a 9A advisor and in 10B after one month she came to me and said, "I cannot do it; I don't know what they are talking about." So we moved her out immediately and put her into home economics, and at the time I put her in I was quite upset. I had had academic people up only to find there was no "general" home economics, but they said they would make adjustments and I put her in the 10B in sewing. We worked and worked with her this last semester in sewing. She cannot sew. She never can learn to sew, so the home economics people say—this is perhaps a little off the point, and if you think it is too much off stop me—but this question came up this morning; the home economics department said they would put her in foods, but she cannot do their very difficult technical work in the advanced part of the foods, and what I want this girl taught—this girl is going to have to do cleaning by the day, I want her taught to clean. She will probably get married or do both, and she will have to do plain cooking. She has to have a course for those two and the home economics department say they want a highly specialized technical course. I don't think that is right.

MR. WHITNEY: Let me butt in here for a minute. I think the theory is this general course makes it possible for everybody, no matter how low they are in P. L. R., to find his or her own levels and to get something that they can do satisfactorily at least to themselves, whether it is cooking, sewing, French, or anything else.

I notice we have a French teacher and a Latin teacher—but no German teacher and no Italian teacher. French and Latin are perfectly safe, so we brought them. [Laughter]

Miss Hotchkiss who just talked, teaches French. Now Miss Hawkins, you have had time to get up your answer.

MISS HAWKINS: I have thought of so many things to say I don't know where to begin first.

MR. WHITNEY: You are good if you can answer this.

MISS HAWKINS: We don't put anybody out. Everyone knows the home economics department has always been the dumping ground for everybody [laughter] and what is more we are proud of it. We are proud that we have work that we can give in some shape or form for every girl, as it should be, because of course she is a future homemaker [applause]. In Collinwood we do have a lot to do for this girl in the low P. L. R. range, taking the general course.

I think, Miss Hotchkiss you are not in on this, but we are planning some special courses in washing and laundry and cleaning and household mechanics, in keeping with household service and homemaking which will be the future occupation of this girl.

I was glad to hear you say that we are highly specialized in one line. We do select a few people, and we find even in home economics in the fields of clothing and foods, that only the good people are wanted, so that we do try to select in our eleventh grade the girls who are intensely interested in foods, and we have a faculty tearoom which acts as a nucleus for a project of training our girls in tearoom service and tearoom cookery which has been very successful, and we have placed all the girls we have so far trained in that line, and as the story goes, "no restaurant in Cleveland is safe to go to without a Collinwood girl right there to watch and see what you are doing."

Of course I could go on and on; I think I have a very live and very worth-while place for the low P. L. R. girl and the high P. L. R. girl. [Applause]

MR. WHITNEY: I think maybe we ought to stop here a moment and ask questions: maybe somebody has a question in this group.

We have been developing these low level courses in the senior high school, we enroll two thousand nine hundred pupils; in the junior high our six-year school we have two thousand one hundred; we have about eight hundred boys and girls in the so-called general course which doesn't have much in the way of academic standards, we will admit.

Now, in the effort to adjust curriculum and teaching to these lower level non-academic people, maybe we have leaned over so far backward—we had visitors from Hartford, Connecticut, this past week and they were concerned over our salvation; they thought we were going pretty dangerously near the edge, and all our standards were being wrecked.

Q. Don't you think in catering to this we are pampering their whims and fancies, and that their minds and bodies are to become soft; they should realize they have to take the bitter with the sweet; most young people who go out into the world will have to take the first job that comes along, whether agreeable or disagreeable; they will have to associate with people they like and people they dislike. They should be tolerant and have respect for the rights and feelings of others.

Then there is the element of failure. Will they have the stamina and the will power to try, try again, if they don't succeed at first? Let us prepare the child for such a future then if she is given something difficult in a manual class, a class that will challenge the muscle or mind—something hard.

MR. WHITNEY: Do you feel in this effort to take care of the lower levels of the poorer academic mind, that we have neglected the superior ones and dropped our standards? Does anybody want to talk to that?

A. I would like to ask Miss Ritchie one word: we try to adjust our work in our industrial classes to meet the ability of the boy, but we try to put some challenge ahead of him all the time, to succeed. What we

want to do is teach our boys to succeed, and not meet failure. We want to get our people to look for success in life and feel that they are accomplishing something instead of become so many failures; maybe if we did that we wouldn't have so many WPA workers.

A MEMBER: We don't want to forget either that for these low P. L. R. groups their ability in learning is so much less than that of the better students that when they do have success they have attained something within themselves, that I think will enable them to face the world in a little better fashion.

A MEMBER: The idea is, is it not, to challenge the excellence of performance, and on any level, regardless of the I. Q. if he is an excellent jitterbug he should be accorded some recognition for that. He has to be excellent in some one thing.

MR. WHITNEY: Do you feel, Miss Dietz, in English for example—everybody has to take English, maybe they shouldn't, but they do, they don't all take mathematics, and perhaps there isn't much use in it, there might be a disagreement about that, perhaps there isn't much use in teaching mathematics, algebra, plain geometry, solid geometry, trigonometry on low levels, I doubt it myself, but—what about this English that everybody takes; do you feel in this teaching of English that we have thrown standards out of the window in our effort to accommodate our teaching to the low group?

A. I think in arranging our English for the general course we have, well I would say, lowered the standards. Maybe I had better say set up a new set of standards for the slow pupil, and we find that it is very satisfactory.

We give them work that they can do, which we think that they will use most in their life after school. They are very well satisfied with it; they are now making passing grades where before they failed in a course two or three times, and the fact that they can pass their work as well as the brighter pupils gives them satisfaction, makes them happier, and they are very eager to do the kind of work we give them; the teachers likewise are very much happier in working with these pupils.

MR. WHITNEY: Have you or any of the English teachers any objective illustrations of the kind of material given these low level people?

MISS WOOD: I might put in a word about class of 11B boys, many of them ranked 58 to 69 in their P. L. R. They enjoyed the *Readers Digest;* they said they like it because it is short; they wanted something short to read; they were slow readers and said they could not read long novels, their interest was shown by the fact that they asked to take the magazine home to read. One boy said, "We have had that magazine in our house for two years but I didn't know it was good reading. They want to take

it into the study hall. Two boys asked if I could get a summer subscription for them. There was enough variety to appeal to all of them.

MR. WHITNEY: Is there anyone here who wants to mention any adjustments in other departments?

A MEMBER: I would like to ask a question about the general course. What about passing pupils who do such poor work? Is that going to have an effect upon them, and upon the other pupils who come on?

MR. WHITNEY: I should say it is going to have an effect upon them; they become candidates for graduation and many of them do graduate, sad but true. We are graduating these people right along. One of them, since we have begun to do it has even applied for college but did not get there.

A MEMBER: Mr. Whitney, in the science department there is the applied science, the biology, and also the applied senior science. In the applied biology they learn the actual care and raising of plants rather than studying their structure. In the applied senior science they learn to take care of various electrical appliances, they learn how to fire a furnace and learn actually applied science rather than more abstract scientific principles.

MR. WHITNEY: I think perhaps we might talk about the adjustive phase of guidance. I want to get in these college class words, these terms such as distributive guidance and adjustive guidance, they sound well.

There is a good deal, undoubtedly going on wherever guidance goes on in connection with this distribution of pupils in the courses, more or less predicated upon their desire for specific occupations, but behind, below, around, or above all of this there is a great deal of personality adjustment as everybody knows.

What is the relation, what is going on, what do you have to say about that? Does anyone wish to pick this up? The personality adjustment that goes on?

A. We have some children, as I suppose there are in every school, as you know, Mr. Whitney, who just cannot adjust to the school's situation. We don't know at first whether it is due to emotional unbalance or whether it is due to some lack of native ability in the child, and so it falls to me to make a study of the child when he is referred to me, to make a case study, after a fashion and interview the child, and send him to the school doctor for examination to see if there is anything wrong with his eyes, or his ears, or if the doctor has anything to report to us about the physical condition of the child.

And then I take the doctor's report, consider it and then I go to the home of the child and talk to one or both parents, and see what they would like to have us do for their child who for some reason or other is making a failure rather than a success.

At that point we not only advise the child but we advise the parents too, and coming back to school again, seeing the home-room teacher and getting all the classroom teachers together, we pool what knowledge we have of the child and then we hope out of that that the home-room teacher can more successfully advise the child and guide the child.

We don't drop it, merely, in the lap of the home-room teacher, but the principal himself, the assistant principals and those of us who have more time, try to work right along with the child so that we can help him to adjust himself in a situation where he had been maladjusted.

MR. WHITNEY: For your information, Miss Robinson is devoting all of her time to case studies and to the testing program. She has no classes. Most of our advisors have a part-time teaching program, two-thirds time.

Mr. S., would you say a word about the relation of discipline to personality failure?

A. I believe that discipline is probably one of the biggest headaches any teacher or school person has. There is always some problem case we try to eliminate from our classes; we try to get him out of school some way, but that is not the cure-all, we feel; at Collinwood we feel that we can do something for that youngster, the thing to do is to dig down and find it, because maybe it is the lack of interest in the course, because that youngster doesn't want that course; maybe he is not fitted for the course.

We then go to Miss Robinson and get all the information we can about this person and adjust the course to the person, not the person to the course. In that way we find that we have eliminated most of our disciplinary problems; it is not a cure-all—we are not guaranteeing that, but we do find that it has cut down a great deal many disciplinary problems in many teachers' classes.

MR. WHITNEY: Any questions on this matter of adjustment?

Q. I want to ask Miss Robinson if in her department there is a little more time for the peculiar child; he is not a discipline problem but he is poorly adjusted; he is usually a very intelligent and super-sensitive child. You meet a great many of them, who are not discipline problems but who sometimes need attention. I don't know that they always get it because they are always quiet and don't make trouble.

MISS ROBINSON: We hear about a good many of those. When Miss Riebert has had a chance to consider the peculiar children referred to her by their teachers, if in her judgment some special study should be made of the child, Miss Riebert gives the high sign and I get busy.

We have had several of what Miss Connelly calls peculiar children. They are extremely unhappy, sometimes very very bright children, and when we find out, usually it is easy to find out just what is the greatest ambition that the child has.

One boy wanted to be in the limelight. He was a great tall boy with a head of hair which was bushy and flew all over his head. The only thing that was the matter with him was that he was not getting enough attention, and just as quickly as we found out it was not hard, after a heart-to-heart talk, just simply let the child see that he had a sympathetic listener, and he laid open his heart to show that he wanted to have more attention, he would like to be sergeant-at-arms in a home room, and Miss David made him sergeant-at-arms, and all of his peculiarities fell from him like water from a duck's back, and Keith is now one of our very fine, upstanding, forward-looking boys of whom we are very proud.

MR. WHITNEY: I hope you appreciate the fact that Miss Robinson's attention is given to a very small number, necessarily in a school of five thousand pupils she only gets selected cases that clear to her through the dean of girls, Miss Riebert, and we use them—I hope we use them—as examples in the real sense, examples showing all of us, encouraging us all that it is possible to find the causes of maladjustment, and we can.

Now, Miss Riebert, I think it is time for you to say something about these major work or enrichment groups; we have been talking about the lower-level people.

MISS RIEBERT: I got a high sign from the back row; I was also asked the same question from the front row: what is this P. L. R. we are talking about?

MR. WHITNEY: Now is the time to clear it up.

MISS RIEBERT: The P. L. R. stands for probably learning rate, and is about from ten to twenty points higher than the I. Q. We use it for the most part in place of the I. Q. in Cleveland.

In the case of the superior pupils, in senior high particularly, we group together those pupils of superior intelligence and group them in the same English classes, the same mathematics classes, the same language classes, in the hope that they might get the maximum intellectual stimulus.

They seem to enjoy this competition a great deal; there is a great deal of rivalry among them. About once a year we expose them to a battery of tests, coöperative tests that have national norms. They voluntarily take these tests, or ask to take these tests, under a course a little bit of pressure from some of us, but they seem to enjoy taking these tests.

Then by the time they get into the eleventh grade, we are able more or less to pick out our leaders rather definitely.

This is the time that selection for the National Honor Society is first made, and from then on we have spotted our leaders in the school. We think that we have done something in this line for the simple reason that although we are a large, cosmopolitan high school, taking last June's class—a survey of it—I was delighted to find out that fourteen per cent of the

college preparatory people won scholarships to college. We think this is remarkable, because most of our boys and girls are so economically situated that they cannot think about college, so that their going to college does depend upon the awarding of college scholarships.

MR. WHITNEY: Does anybody want to say something about problems of personnel—personal to boys or personal to girls?

MR. YOST: Through our guidance program and visits to the homes we find that many of the homes in our highly industrialized section have become places where boys sleep, and sometimes eat, and as a result they have a lot of personal problems that we might expect ordinarily to be solved at home. So at a certain age when they become interested in social affairs, and the girls, we have gotten them into a course which we call Personal Regimen where we attempt to teach them how to better their personal appearance; how to behave at a party, and all sorts of questions such as that, and from those less personal problems we go into more personal and intimate problems of sex hygiene.

MISS HAWKINS: Mr. Yost, it seems that the boys must be having some of the same problems that the girls are having. We do have girls' courses in personal regimen too, and have had them for a long time. I have been thinking if it would not be a good thing to combine our boys and girls in some actual lessons in that fine social room of ours and get them together in actual situations where they can act out some of these problems in conduct and social manners and all the rest that they are so interested in.

MR. YOST: I believe we are fighting for that in this semester, some of the 12-A girls cooking the meals and some of the boys helping to eat them. [Laughter]

MR. WHITNEY: I think our time is nearly up. I think we ought to have a few questions from this group up here, perhaps picking out the things we ought to be doing and are not now doing. I believe we have a philosophy—I hope so—at Collinwood—that the school ought to organize its whole life, its curriculum, its teaching, all the activities of the school so that every boy or girl gets an opportunity to find satisfaction in achieving some realization of an objective, find something he can tie to, he or she gets an objective, and works for it.

Now I wonder, are there things we ought to, I think, ask some questions up here before we leave as to the things we ought to be doing, and are not now doing, are there needs which we are ignoring to-day? Are there interests that are not being discovered and developed?

A MEMBER FROM THE FLOOR: I wanted very badly to interrupt because we had a faculty meeting very much like this, just last Friday, where the question of marks came up.

Now you have these general people, the low ability people; do you have any difficulty with respect to marks? Do they get the satisfactory pro-

portion of A's and B's and so on that the other people get or is there an adjustment, and if so what?

MR. WHITNEY: I pass that on to you, Miss Dietz, or Mr. Goodekunz or anybody else who wants to take it.

MR. GOODEKUNZ: In the social study department there is the exact distribution of A's, B's, and C's as there is in the high P. L. R.'s, although of course among the general people there are more D's, but there are no failures in the generals.

MR. WHITNEY: Maybe you shouldn't have said that.

MR. GOODEKUNZ: That is the situation. [Laughter]

MR. WHITNEY: You will allow at Collinwood High School in the general course they are segregated in the academic subjects; they are not mixed with the others. There are no failures in English, social studies, science and mathematics so far as they take the general courses in mathematics.

It is terrible, isn't it? That is what these Hartford Connecticut people thought; they went back home with a terrible tale of what is happening here. What do you think about this, Miss Flowers?

Miss Flowers teaches Latin—she stands for culture. [Laughter]

Do you think that these folks out there at Collinwood are getting any challenge in the things that you are interested in—the higher life?

A. I am wondering if in our interest to get these people through this world by means of earning their bread if we are not forgetting the other side. In this modern age of increased and stepped-up production and shorter hours certainly these people have to have something to do in their spare time, and as I look around Collinwood and see the interests from a great majority of our people, I begin to feel that we are failing this group—other than the college preparatory group—in not giving them some of these cultural advantages, so-called perhaps—which will teach them the ability at least to read a newspaper intelligently. They cannot possibly do this without some definite historical background, it seems to me, and some of the things that are offered in our so-called cultural or academic subjects.

And how many of them listen to a good speech on the radio? Not many.

Mr. Yost has often said to me he wished I knew some solution for some of the questions he has asked. One is: how to entertain a young lady without any money. And I have said that is just the question—because these people don't have any ingenuity, they don't have the background, and I am for giving them some academic cultural background—definitely.

MR. WHITNEY: That is fine, as for that, if you can teach a boy how to entertain a girl without any money. Mr. Clark is burning with something to say. [Laughter]

MR. CLARK: It seems to me that since one of the most important things in life is the ability to get a job and to make a living, to support a family, and so forth, that our greatest weakness at Collinwood is in the fact that we are not giving our pupils enough information about the world in which they are going to earn a living, not enough about occupation. We are right in the heart of a very great industrial district and our boys and girls don't know much about it.

A MEMBER: Mr. Whitney, isn't the reason for that because the teachers don't know much about the industrial life?

MR. WHITNEY: Let's ask Mr. Graham. Mr. Graham ought to say something now about extra-curriculum activities.

MR. OLSON: May I first answer a question about the grading, especially the low P. L. R.'s?

I would like to give my experience with grading these low P. L. R.'s.

We seggregate the low ones, for instance in my shop class they are mostly all generals, then I do have a sprinkling of them in my other classes. In five classes I will group them all together. I happen to be a drawing teacher; when I mark a drawing, I mark it from two points of view; I ask myself this question: is the boy working somewhere near his maximum ability? Second: is the drawing somewhere near a standard that could actually be used in the shop. When I give a general student a mark I don't hold him to as high or rigid standards as I would a technical student. I mark entirely on points system and have a progress chart. I would put down the points as I would for a higher P. L. R. or a purely technical student. When the marking time comes, I have quite a problem in addition, but I prefer to go through it even though it is a rather laborious process.

I find that by doing that I take into consideration not only the quality of the work, but the quantity. Now here is a strange thing about some who are classed as generals—sometimes their interest is so high that they easily surpass those who are classed as technicals and I find that I can get along at least without any grumbling about marks by taking and grouping them all as one, by taking five classes for instance, a boy in the 3-A class cannot compare notes with his chum in the sixth Class and say: I did more work than you and I get a lower grade.

My experience with that marking system has been good. It is considerable work, however.

Q. I would like to return to the 9-A guidance in selecting the courses of study for the children we are just about ready for that. Is there a possibility that some of the teachers might not understand what is being given in all these departments and would it not be advisable for the heads of the

departments to give a little exposition about the content of their courses? And it might also be further advantageous to have a bulletin got out giving a summary of those things.

MR. WHITNEY: A word about that—Mr. Shattuck?

A. That information is passed on to the teachers through a bulletin that is put out, when this guidance was started; all the ninety teachers also met, and it is explained by a senior advisor and by myself, and the senior advisor visits each home room separately, in which he has spent at least thirty minutes each time, explaining the courses of study, the majors and the minors, and the setup in the senior high school.

MR. WHITNEY: Our time, I think, is about up.

I want to thank the members of my staff for coming in and participating apparently with such cheerfulness and good-nature in this discussion and for your attention in listening to this faculty group. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN MYER: I want to thank Mr. Whitney. I think this was a very good discussion.

We want to thank the members of the staff of Collinwood High School; they have given us a good deal to think about, very thoughtful suggestions have been made; they have raised a number of very important issues.

We speak about systematic and sustained discussion. This has been a systematic approach, I am sure, to the problem of guidance, and one thing that we need, it needs to be sustained.

Discussion can be carried to the point where there are some conclusions. If it could not be we would have very little reason to discuss and conclusions might be reached—there were a number of issues raised here each one of which could be used as subject for quite a prolonged discussion covering several faculty meetings.

I think the question of guidance is worth it and I hope that very many of the principals here will care to go on with the discussion work, and if we can be of any assistance in the Washington office in furnishing material, we will be very glad to do it.

One thing, perhaps I should say, I have just been thinking as the discussion went on that it might be if they work out this curriculum for the non-academic pupil, that one of the greatest benefits perhaps will be that we will have some good suggestions then out of the information for our curriculum for the academics, but at any rate that in itself would offer a subject for discussion, I should suppose, in a number of faculty meetings.

VICE-PRESIDENT CLARK: On behalf of the Department I would thank Dr. Myer for this arrangement and Mr. Whitney and this group for this stimulating presentation.

I am now asking the President to take charge of the meeting for the business session.

BUSINESS MEETING

President Elicker then called the business meeting to order, and introduced Francis L. Bacon, who explained the purpose of the proposed change of name of this organization.

Principal M. G. Jones moved that the new name be *National Association of Secondary-School Principals, the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association.* This motion after some discussion prevailed.

President Elicker asked for the report of the Nominating Committee. This was presented by Mr. A. E. MacQuarrie, Principal of Washburn High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota, as follows:

February 28, 1939

Mr. President:

At the meeting of your Nominating Committee, there were present twenty-seven members representing twenty-seven states. Your Committee unanimously voted to present the following nominations:

Member of the Executive Committee for a term of three years, Dr. Hugh H. Stewart, Principal Davis High School, Mount Vernon, New York.

Second Vice President, John E. Wellwood, Principal Central High School, Flint, Michigan.

First Vice President, Oscar Granger, Principal Haverford Township High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania.

President, K. J. Clark, Principal Murphy High School, Mobile, Alabama.

Respectfully submitted,
A. E. MacQuarrie,
Secretary of the Nominating Committee, *And Twenty-Six Others.*

I move that the Executive Secretary cast the appropriate ballot for the election of these nominees. Carried.

President Elicker at once inducted the President-elect, K. J. Clark, who made a brief speech of thanks and appreciation.

Promptly D. T. Taylor, Principal of Cloverdale Junior High School, Montgomery, Alabama, presented Mr. Clark with a bouquet of japonicas sent by the Kiwanis Club of Mobile, and added to Mr. Clark's surprise and confusion by bestowing a gift from his faculty of a life membership in the National Education Association.

The meeting closed with a motion of thanks to President Elicker by John H. Tyson, Principal of Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania for the successful programs of the Convention. Adjournment.

FOURTH GENERAL SESSION

Wednesday, March 1, 1939

2:00 P. M.

The fourth general session was divided into three divisions, Junior High School, Senior High School, and Junior College groups.

The general theme for these three divisions is *Significant Contributions to Secondary-School Improvements.*

The Junior High-School Division, held in Club Room A of the Public Auditorium, was presided over by Virgil M. Hardin, Principal of Pipkin and of Reed Junior High Schools of Springfield, Missouri, and member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, who introduced Mr. J. D. Hull, Principal of Senior High School, Springfield, Missouri, who read his paper, *Making School Marks More Meaningful.*

CAN MARKS BE MADE MEANINGFUL?

J. D. Hull

Principal of Senior High School, Springfield, Missouri

Most teachers are quite ready to discuss the rather widespread movement to modify the traditional marking system. Last March at a meeting of the North Central Association in Chicago, two general sessions were devoted to proposed changes in regulations for approving secondary schools. In one of the proposed regulations was a suggestion for ranking high-school graduates, and throughout the two sessions the chairman struggled valiantly to restrain the delegates from a discussion of the pros and cons of traditional marks. In the regular business meetings he was successful in curbing the debate, but at a later evening meeting the subject was dragged in by the heels to serve as a vent for many pent-up words and much animated discussion. In general, the college representatives were reluctant to part with traditional marks while the high-school principals who did the most talking were eager to throw them all out the window.

Not only teachers but parents and pupils as well like to talk about teachers' marks. They have had experience with them usually with an emotional effect. They either like or dislike marks. They may be indefinite about what marks are supposed to evaluate, but the differentiation is easily comprehended. Marks are simple little symbols. When first mentioned at least, they do not put people to sleep and send them woolgathering as do such phrases as civilization of economic abundance and curriculum designer for the new education.

It is no wonder then that many public school workers have embraced the seemingly simple task of making marks more meaningful. Most of these workers have genuinely desired to effect a general change in attitude toward the work of the school. Perhaps a few have merely wanted to climb aboard the band wagon and be Progressive with a capital P. But whatever the motive, a thoughtful attempt to modify the marking system can afford fresh insights into teaching. The purpose of this paper is to present some opinions which have grown out of the experience of changing marks in four public high schools with typically heavy teaching loads. If the paper has a thesis, it is that there is no necessary correlation between changing traditional marks and building a wholesome attitude toward them.

For the past seven years children in our elementary schools have periodically taken home to their parents report cards which were checked satisfactory or unsatisfactory in the traditional school subjects. For each reporting period there is a space where the teacher is expected to write a paragraph of comment about the child's social development and growth in personal characteristics.

During the school year 1937-38 in our three junior high schools pupils received reports which carried marks of satisfactory or unsatisfactory in subject matter achievement and a number of social and personal characteristics. Each pupil's card was marked by the pupil himself as well as the teacher. During the same school year, senior high-school pupils received cards marked either excellent or satisfactory or unsatisfactory in subject matter achievement and in a number of personal characteristics.

During the past two years committees of junior and senior high-school teachers have been studying such questions as the following:

1. Is it desirable to separate the reporting and recording systems?
2. What purposes should reporting systems serve?
3. How precise should marks be?
4. Should children participate in marking themselves?
5. Is it desirable to have the form of the reporting system different in the junior and senior high schools?
6. What are the causes for the misuse of marking systems?
7. How may we promote a common understanding of the terms used on report forms?

There is not time to review here the discussions stimulated by these questions. It does seem worth while to point out the great need that existed for defining the items measured by a teacher's mark. Many teachers had not thought very precisely about what their marks meant. After they had thought about the question, they had great difficulty in agreeing upon statements of meanings because the same terms meant

different things to different people. And some had such an aversion to the words teacher's mark that they were unable to substitute reality for the symbols. In the light of the confusion among teachers caused by varied understandings of identical terms, it is remarkable that teachers can communicate with parents at all.

As a result of this committee work, the three junior high schools and the senior high school are using the same reporting forms during the current year. Pupils are marked satisfactory or unsatisfactory as compared with their ability on growth in four characteristics: (1) Intelligent self-direction, (2) social adjustment, (3) work habits, and (4) knowledge and skills. In a special bulletin to parents these terms are analyzed, explained, and illustrated in terms specific enough and definite enough for the parents to understand. Achievement in knowledge and skills means different things for different subjects.

Whether or not a pupil's growth is satisfactory when compared with his ability is, of course, a matter of subjective teacher judgment. Ability may be judged by observation, reading test scores, college aptitude test scores, etc.

Since the marks are in terms of growth compared with ability, it sometimes happens that an able pupil receives unsatisfactory in all four characteristics marked and still receives his credit toward graduation. It also occurs occasionally that a pupil receives satisfactory marks and still does not receive his unit of credit toward graduation. If a pupil is often in this situation, when he arrives at his graduating time, he is granted a certificate of attendance instead of a diploma.

The budget for tests has been increased, and it has been arranged to administer to each pupil each year (1) two general achievement tests in each subject and (2) either a standardized reading test or a college aptitude test or an intelligence test. The decile rank of each pupil on each test is recorded on his permanent record and used for guidance purposes. By inquiring a pupil may find out whether his score was below average, average, or above average. His parent by inquiring may ascertain his exact rank.

A few parents consider our separate reporting and recording systems an admirable arrangement. Many have no criticism except that the school is causing them to go to some trouble and effort in order to find out how their children are progressing. However, most parents think of the school as a place where lessons are learned. They see no differences between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. These parents smile and say our marking system seems senseless but they are not inclined to be troublesome about the matter.

For all the high-school teachers the project has been an excellent stimulus for studying what they are doing and why they are doing it. In order to compensate for the abandoning of marks indicating different

levels of achievement, they were forced to define in definite, concrete, and understandable terms their objectives for the school and for all learning areas. Having defined their objectives they were in a situation where they were forced to think rather precisely about (1) the systematic organization of materials in order to attain these objectives and (2) the systematic evaluation of the extent to which the objectives had been attained. Of course there is nothing in these procedures which skillful teachers should not be doing continuously under all circumstances, but heavily loaded school workers too often do only the things they have to do because they are in some kind of a predicament which requires thought and action.

When the budget for tests was originally increased, it was assumed that at least half the funds would be spent on standardized tests. However, it soon became apparent to teachers that standardized tests often failed to measure the things which they needed to measure in their particular courses and that using such instruments would be allowing the makers of such tests to set the objectives for their courses. Hence committees of teachers are increasingly devising their own general achievement tests. Substitutes have been provided for them so that for a week at a time they may be freed from periods of teaching in order to analyze their objectives, procedures, and measurements to make sure that they are all of one piece. For them doing away with traditional marks has been a kind of back door into a systematic course of studying revision.

Teachers are carrying on this work with the full knowledge that many test experts say the typical high-school teacher does more harm than good by building his own objective tests. They have the hope that their own growth will compensate for their test items which discriminate in a negative fashion.

As yet no systematic inquiry has been made to find out the effects on pupils but there have been difficulties. Undoubtedly some pupils had grown accustomed to being motivated by marks alone, and in some of their classes where marks have not been replaced by intrinsic challenges, they have suffered a lowering of interest and activity. In other words, for these pupils, marks as motives have been done away with but nothing else has been put in their place.

On the other hand many pupils have been as much motivated and emotionally disturbed by the achievement examinations as they were by the teachers' marks. Those who abhor teachers' marks see in this an evidence that both pupils and teachers are taking toward the examinations attitudes which are carried over from those formerly taken toward marks. The examinations are made rather formal by the fact that all English examinations are administered at one hour, all social studies examinations at another hour, etc. A few teachers are urging a return to the traditional marking system because they feel that the examination has all the weak-

nesses of a mark as a motivating force. They are agreed that for guidance purposes they must have on the office record either a more discriminating teacher's mark than "Satisfactory" and "Unsatisfactory" or some kind of a percentile rank on achievement tests.

By using only the two marks "satisfacory" and "unsatisfactory" we are neglecting to give parents discriminating information about their children but we are setting a situation where competition is discouraged. However, in marking a child according to his background and ability we are still using marks as motivating instruments. By implication we are saying, "If you work up to the limit of your ability you will be rewarded with a satisfactory mark. If you do anything less than your best you will suffer an unsatisfactory mark."

It was hoped that teachers and pupils would find a new rapport since the chief marking device, the examination, had been made external to both groups. However, at present it cannot be said that pupils are especially grateful for stimulating and skillful instruction. Rather do they feel resentment against the teacher when they make a poor showing on an examination. Aldous Huxley makes a character in one of his novels say, "Men don't spend their time thanking God for cars; they only curse when the carburetor is choked."

Those who insist that pages of written comment from the teacher can replace all marks and ranks on the permanent record have surely never worked in a school where the heavy teaching load was continually straining the patience of North Central Association examining authorities. In such a school limitations of time make impossible the preparation of adequate unabridged reports.

In the matter of the emotional effects of teachers' marks, the crux of the problem seems to be this: As motivating instruments marks are bad. As evidences for guidance, marks, or something else substituted for them, are essential. It seems almost impossible to use them as guiding instruments without having someone use them as motives. But the school's task is to achieve this seeming contradiction. This means building an understanding of differences in pupils and an attitude of objectivity toward individual strengths and weaknesses. Intelligent parents and teachers can teach a child to look at a low mark or test score and say "Well, there's my worst foot forward and it's nothing to fret about, but it's part of the picture."

In the *New High School in the Making,* William L. Wrinkle has an interesting chapter on marking and reporting. After presenting vigorously the current arguments against marks, namely, they promote competition, are extrinsic motives, etc., he lists in rapid succession the many different marking systems tried out and abandoned since 1932 in the Secondary School of Colorado State College of Education. The particular system in

vogue at the time of writing had three characteristics. First, the outcomes on which pupils were marked were analyzed and stated in such a fashion that they were capable of being improved by all pupils. Second, the five indexes used in reporting indicated "distinctly superior, satisfactory, needs to make improvement, unsatisfactory, and no evaluation." Third, instead of being compared with other pupils or judged by his background and ability, each pupil was compared with normal pupils at his age and school level. Mr. Wrinkle insists that this arrangement is very different from the ordinary competitive, mark motivated situation. He says, "It should also be recognized that these evaluations are entirely unlike the single composite evaluations—A, B, C, etc., given in conventional school subjects." However, it is difficult to see anything fundamentally distinctive about the evaluations except that they are made on a large number of carefully explained, specific items.

The weakest point in the system and one which Mr. Wrinkle himself concedes may be an inconsistency is the use of a hypothetical normal pupil as the basis for evaluation. Perhaps there is no danger that high-school pupils will compete with an imaginary normal pupil. However, to the uninitiated it is difficult to see how one would restrain a pupil with subnormal abilities from competing with normal pupils who received higher marks. And in spite of his subnormal abilities, if he received a sufficient number of "Unsatisfactories" and "needs to make improvements" he probably would eventually learn that the cards were stacked against him. It is extremely difficult to keep evaluations secret and use them to inform parents and pupils at the same time.

A few weeks ago there was broadcast over a national hookup an effective program dealing with report cards in a "Wings for the Martins" episode prepared by the Federal Office of Education. The skit dealt with two neighboring families. A healthy, wholesome, intelligent relationship prevailed in one family, and a warped, perverted, stupid relationship prevailed in the other. School experiences of the children precipitated a bitter family quarrel. The quarrel rushed to a swift climax and reconciliation, after which both mothers hurried over to the school to demand a new type report card and thus eliminate all their difficulties. Probably listeners were not meant to reflect that one family seemed to get along very well with the old type report card and that perhaps the attitude of the stupid family needed to be changed more than did the report card.

Most of those who do any speaking or writing about this marking problem appear to be doctrinaires. All the ballyhoo is directed toward doing away with traditional marks as a means of improving personalities of pupils and better informing parents. Little or nothing is usually mentioned about the effects on teachers. In our particular situation, modifying traditional marks as yet seems to have had doubtful results with pupils

and parents. With teachers it has undoubtedly been a stimulus for their studying what they are doing and why.

The changing of traditional marks is often presented as a simple matter to be accepted or rejected on the basis of an "either or" philosophy. At best it is a complicated problem affecting almost every aspect of the school. As such it serves as a handle for studying the school. But to one who does not approach the task with a foregone conclusion it presents inherent inconsistencies and contradictions.

Although it meant riding a horse in at least two different directions at the same time, we have continued to encourage the National Honor Society. Membership in that organization can and should be functional just as membership in a student council or a cheer-leading group. It should be considered an instrument of social approval rather than a material reward for achievement. High-school pupils know that they differ among themselves and they should learn to accept as their own functional differences recognized by teachers. Left alone, pupil distinctions are likely to be spurious ones, based upon social and economic status of parents. By trying to ignore public recognition of other kinds of differences, the school will emphasize these invidious distinctions. The left wing educators so vigorously attacking all honors and awards believe that they are attacking the profit motive in our society. As a matter of fact they are probably attacking the only thing which could ever be a substitute for it.

ADMINISTERING AN INTEGRATED PROGRAM OF EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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An increasing number of secondary schools are attempting to develop educational programs which those in charge believe will promote the individual and social integration of their pupils. Such programs usually are characterized by efforts to provide an offering of educational experiences which are in themselves integrated to some degree. These offerings have been designated by a variety of names such as correlated curriculums, broad-fields curriculums, core curriculums, general education programs, experience curriculums, and by other terms depending on the form taken and other factors. Whatever the name given to them may be, within limits of great variation they refer to programs of education required of all or nearly all pupils that deal with rather broad problems or topics and that tend to cut across subject matter lines. The evils of compartmentalized subject matter are avoided by dealing with all aspects or implications of problems as a unified whole. Coöperative planning and teaching, the use of larger

blocks of time than is alloted to the usual class period, and the extensive utilization of community resources for education are common features of programs of this type. A strong tendency to bring guidance and instruction together as integral parts of the curriculum is also a significant characteristic. While either a part or all of these features may be present in any given program, the literature of secondary education within recent years indicates that a growing throng of schools is joining the procession of integration.

Four of the junior high schools of Tulsa have been experimenting for the past five and one-half years with educational programs that attempt to promote integration. A large senior high school has been engaged in a similar program for three years. Previous to the current school year, only a portion of each school was involved in the new type of program. Last September one junior high school was completely reorganized on the basis of experience and information gained from the experimental work. Another, which has had a reorganization program under way for two years, operates two of its three grades according to the new plan. The remaining five junior high schools have one third or more of their respective enrollments working in it. Plans are under way which will eventually have the entire student body of each of the junior high schools following a core program of general education that it is believed will provide richer and better integrated educational experiences better adapted to the individual and collective needs of students than has been possible through the medium of departmentalized offerings used heretofore.

With respect to enrollment, class size, teacher load, plant facilities, and other administrative features, these schools are probably fairly typical of those found in city systems. Class sizes in the junior high schools average somewhat under forty pupils each. Teachers teach for the equivalent of five or six class periods per day plus an activity period in some schools. With a few exceptions, buildings and their equipment have been in use for a number of years and were planned to provide a reasonably good program of departmentalized education. On the whole, staffs have better training than is found in the average city school system. With exception of the latter factor and a limited amount of expert service from the outside, no unusual facilities have been provided in the secondary schools of Tulsa which favor development of an integrated educational program.

The term core-curriculum was first used to designate the new type of educational program being used in Tulsa. Because it is a broader and more inclusive term and because it seems to fit the situation better as it exists, the name general education program is now being used. In this discussion these two terms, i. e., core-curriculum and general-education program, will be used synonymously.

The individual school that undertakes to develop a program that promotes individual and social integration is faced with a series of difficult and perplexing problems. Curriculum reorganization, the selection, assignment, and training of teachers, adaptation of plant and equipment, reorganization of the daily schedule, securing the coöperation of patrons, utilizing the educational resources of the community and many others demand attention.

Curriculum reorganization and revision is likely to be the first concern because, as a rule, a beginning can hardly be made without a rather thorough-going revision of instructional offerings, particularly if the school has been following more or less traditional courses of study. However, this discussion deals primarily with administrative procedures, and while curriculum building offers problems of critical importance in developing a program of integrated education, it will be considered here only as it affects administration of the individual school.

A wealth of information is available relative to the organization and administration of curriculum construction programs of many kinds. Perhaps it is sufficient to reemphasize here that administrative provisions must be made for all staff members who are to participate in an educational program of the integrating type to also take part in the curriculum development program that of necessity accompanies it. This participation must be real and not nominal. It must make teachers, administrators, and supervisors sensitive to the need for educational improvement, and must give them a thorough understanding of the proposed program and its implications for instructional and administrative procedures. Extra time for meetings, committee work and editorial duties must be provided for those who are to carry the burden of writing and compiling materials. Directors and administrators must be fully cognizant that curriculum revision is almost a never-ending process and that expert assistance of many kinds is required.

Concurrent with the problem of curriculum revision, that of teacher selection and training is certain to arise. In the Tulsa schools, as in most city school systems under present conditions, this is largely a matter of training rather than one of selection. Staff members already in service must be prepared to undertake operation of the new program. However, where a choice can be made, certain personality characteristics that are unusually desirable should be sought for in teachers. Alertness, power of adaptability, and ingenuity are particularly useful to the teacher who engages in this type of work. Since teachers must work together intimately and coördinate their activities to a high degree in an integrated program, the ability to get along with co-workers is almost an essential trait.

Few teachers have the requisite background of philosophy and experience needed to develop an integrated program of education in the junior

high school. For most teachers, who have been accustomed to the conventional program of secondary education, a considerable period of training in the techniques of working together coöperatively is necessary. Apparently, some teachers find it almost impossible to master them. A teacher who is highly successful when working by herself in her chosen field may not be able to make the adjustments and compromises necessary to function effectively as a member of a coöperating group of teachers who are developing an integrated program.

Properly managed, the program of curriculum revision may be relied on to provide much valuable training. But other measures and devices will have to be used. Staff meetings, committee meetings, departmental meetings, lectures, demonstrations, experimentation, participation in summer workshops sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, and individual conferences are a few of the activities used to train Tulsa teachers for the new program of education. While some of these are necessary preliminaries, none of them seem to be as effective as placing the teacher in a group that is to work under the general education plan, giving her as much help as possible, and allowing her to work out her own salvation. The daily conference period which will be discussed later is a most valuable aid for training teachers in the techniques of general education.

When teacher training and curriculum revision have progressed to the point where an integrated type program actually may be started, the principal is likely to find that changes in the school plant are desirable and that teaching materials and equipment require additions. While it is not an absolute requirement, a flexible school plant that can readily be altered and adapted to changes in the school program offers decided advantages. Laboratory type classrooms greatly aid integrated instructional activities. Rooms large enough to permit three or more class groups to assemble at one time are extremely useful. It is often desirable for two class groups to meet together and suitable rooms should be provided for this purpose if possible. Library facilities should be much more extensive than are generally provided for the conventional educational program, both for the library proper and for the classrooms. A variety of visual aids and suitable crafts materials make valuable contributions to the success of the program. Accessibility to a public library, to parks, zoos, and other educational facilities of the community is very helpful. On the other hand, too much emphasis probably should not be placed on plant and equipment requirements. One of the best programs of general education developed to date in the junior high schools of Tulsa is housed in a school plant that is far from ideal for any kind of educational activity.

A reasonably adequate plan of curriculum revision and a considerable amount of preliminary teacher training seem to be minimum essentials for making a satisfactory start in a program of integrated education on the

junior high-school level. But as the general education program got under way in Tulsa, it was soon discovered by those in charge that the conventional administrative machinery of the secondary school was poorly adapted to it. As a matter of fact, many of the usual administrative procedures of the secondary school proved to be a positive hindrance to the development of a program of integrated education.

In the first place, it was found to be highly desirable if not essential that guidance, or at least most of guidance, should become an integral part of the curriculum. When this is not the case, teachers are unlikely to know pupils well enough to be sufficiently aware of their needs, interests, abilities, experiential backgrounds, maturity levels, etc., properly to develop a program of general education that will reasonably assure their personal and social integration. Furthermore, there is likely to be much duplication of effort and uncoördinated activity that results in wasted time and inefficiency, or, on the other hand, valuable guidance may be provided for some pupils that is neglected for others who need it just as much. Considerable modification and improvement of the administrative machinery has been necessary to bring about the desired relation between guidance and the curriculum.

Secondly, the conventional daily schedule was entirely inadequate for the demands placed upon it and became one of the most serious limitations to the development of the new program. A number of factors operate to make this true. Among the most important are the following:

1. In the integrated program, it is frequently desirable that pupils shall be able to work for comparatively long periods without interruption during school hours on problems, projects, dramatic productions, library assignments and other activities of this nature.
2. Pupils should have access to teachers and teachers to pupils at irregular intervals for purposes of guidance and mutual assistance in educational activities more readily than is possible when a conventional schedule is used.
3. Pupils and teachers should be able to take field trips and to engage in educational activities in the community without undue interference with school affairs.
4. Because of the nature of the integrated curriculum, and because of the present limitations of teacher preparation, teachers need to meet together frequently and regularly for the purpose of planning and coördinating their work, locating and organizing materials, and carrying on many other kinds of professional activities. Experience in Tulsa seems to indicate that a conference and planning period should be a part of a teacher's regular schedule, and that it should be included in the school day if possible.

Thus it seems evident that not only a new plan of scheduling was necessary but that other new administrative devices and techniques were required. In general, three types of organization have been developed. All have certain elements in common. Each has its values and shortcomings. Neither is considered perfect by any stretch of the imagination, but experience in the Tulsa secondary schools indicates that they are far superior to conventional practices as devices for administering an integrated program

of education. While there are variations from school to school and, in some cases, combinations of the plans given here, they may be described briefly as follows:

1. *The Unified Period Plan:*

In this plan, a group of class sections is scheduled for the core subjects with coöperating teachers some of whom direct the learning activities of at least two subject matter areas in periods double the usual length. For example, two or three class groups are scheduled with three teachers. One handles social studies and English, another mathematics and science, and the third art. Pupils go to the first two teachers for double periods and to the art teacher for a single period each day. In the remaining period of the schedule, they have physical education anl music on alternate days. While the music and physical education teachers attempt to coördinate their work with that of the other teachers, they are not considered a part of the coöperating group. It will be seen that under this plan the art teacher must be a part of and divide her time between two core groups. Practical arts are alternated with art by semesters or quarters in some schools and by days in others. Teachers of these subjects participate in the core-program. Periods are usually rotated in a manner that permits core teachers to exchange class groups or to take pupils from one class to another without serious disturbance of activities in either.

2. *The Core Group Plan:*

Groups of pupils that include three regular class sections are scheduled for the core activities in two or three consecutive periods with three teachers who work in their respective subject fields. The time at the disposal of the pupils and teachers is utilized as the needs of the groups and the development of learning activities under way seem to require. One or all teachers may meet with the entire group of pupils at a given time, or individual teachers may take class sections or other sub-groups for instruction in certain aspects of the problem, project, or unit under consideration. The consecutive arrangement of the two or three periods permits a minimum of conflict between the core areas and the special subjects.

3. *The Synchronized Block Plan:*

A third plan of organization has many features similar to the second described above but involves more teachers, more class sections, and more periods. It may be called the synchronized block plan because it utilizes a scheduling procedure described by Richardson many years ago as the block method to which has been added a scheme of synchronization that permits class groups to rotate in regular order from one to another of a given set of teachers. The resulting organization becomes a closely knit unit that functions within itself somewhat independent of the remainder of the school, and which permits a high degree of flexibility in the use of time and facilities. In Tulsa, this plan has been called the "school within a

school" type of organization. However, while this expresses the idea involved, it is a misleading name because the class sections that comprise each of these core groups are all drawn from the same grade. For example, five class sections of pupils and five or more teachers constitute an eighth grade core group under this plan. The staff members are one teacher each of English, social studies, mathematics, science, and art or practical arts. Teachers of music and physical education also contribute to core activities but are not necessarily a part of the core group.

Each of these groups of core teachers has its own chairman and exercises a considerable degree of freedom in planning coöperatively the activities to be undertaken, and in arranging the use of the time at their disposal. Pupils also participate in this planning to a large extent. While core group pupils are scheduled for six periods each day, their teachers, with exception of physical education and music, are scheduled for only five. The remaining period is utilized by the teachers as a planning and conference period. Because the class sections that make up a core group are scheduled with a given group of teachers at the same periods for a major portion of the school day, it is possible to make many variations of time and place of meeting, to go on field trips and excursions without disturbing the work of teachers and pupils outside the group, and to engage in other types of educational activities that require a flexibility of schedule not possible under conventional plans of organization.

Careful consideration readily discloses that each of these three plans has the common characteristic of scheduling given class sections and teachers together to form core groups. In the first, some of the teachers work in more than one subject matter area. In the other two, each teacher deals largely with her own field of specialization. Present conditions of teacher training make this latter feature a distinct advantage for most schools. Each of the plans permits pupils to move from teacher to teacher as in a conventional schedule or to remain with one or more of a group of coöperating teachers for two or more consecutive periods during the day or a series of days as the teachers may decide. Obviously, this requires considerable manipulation of the schedule for a given core group by its teachers. Through this procedure, the desired flexibility of schedule is obtained. It would not be possible in the average school using a conventional plan of organization because manipulation of the schedule for any given class section or group of sections usually disrupts or hinders the activities of several others. Either of the three plans described here permits a variety of schedule alterations within a core group without interference with the remainder of the school organization.

It is sometimes necessary to use a combination of plans in a school or even within a grade. One Tulsa school uses a combination of the first and the third plans of organization to schedule a seventh grade of nine

sections. Five sections are organized according to the third and three on the first, while the remaining section is handled separately as a remedial group. An arrangement of this kind permits more effective use of teacher time and makes it unnecessary to schedule core groups of teachers in two different grades.

The second plan can be used effectively in grades where pupils have a choice of one or more electives. It is being used with core-groups in Tulsa Central High School, a senior high school, for the third year. The junior high schools of Tulsa permit ninth grade pupils to choose two elective subjects in addition to the general education program. The second plan is particularly useful in a situation of this kind because it permits electives to be placed in the schedule more easily. Where large numbers of pupils elect a given subject such as, for example, algebra, this subject and the teacher of it can be included in the core organization, sometimes with considerable value to the pupils.

The first plan or some modification of it seems to be more practical than the others for small schools that have less than five class sections enrolled in each grade. While it requires teachers to handle more than one subject matter area, this is frequently true also when a conventional plan of organization is used in small schools. It offers the distinct advantage of permitting core groups to be organized with a few teachers in each.

Because of the unique significance and importance of the daily conference period in the general education program that is being developed in Tulsa, each of the seven junior high schools has included it in the daily schedule. In some cases, it has been possible to do this only by providing a period at the beginning of the day when all teachers are free to meet. Other schools provide free periods for groups of core teachers during the school day in which these conferences are held. The larger schools find it possible to do this more readily than the smaller schools. Whatever plan is used, the conference period is considered an essential part of the teachers' daily schedule.

Guidance activities are greatly facilitated by either of the three plans of organization described above. Teachers and pupils work together in closely knit groups. Naturally they come to know each other well. The daily conference period is often used for case conferences by the teachers. Core groups, both teachers and pupils, in a large measure continue intact throughout the three years the pupils are in the junior high schools. In most schools, teachers serve as advisers of the pupils in their core groups, and an effort is made to have each teacher understand the problems of guidance and to assume considerable responsibility for it. All of these factors operate to make the core group plans discussed here as valuable for the development of guidance as for the other phases of an integrated educational program.

In conclusion, it should be re-emphasized that the plans of organization described here are far from perfect, but they present a distinct advance in overcoming some of the administrative difficulties that tend to hinder educational programs that promote integration. Each school offers unique problems that must be solved. Many modifications, adaptations, and combinations of the plans as outlined have to be made. Within core groups, it is possible for teachers to manipulate the schedule and the class sections in a manner that provides a much greater degree of flexibility than can be obtained when conventional schedules are used. The conference period greatly facilitates curriculum development of the integrated type, improves guidance programs, and offers a useful vehicle for training teachers in the new techniques required. Experience in Tulsa indicates that under present conditions a program of education that seeks to promote integration of pupils can hardly be successful unless frequent conference periods are provided in some manner for the teachers involved.

Administrative procedure must keep pace with other phases of secondary education if the secondary school is to meet the challenge that faces it. There is a decided danger that conventional administrative practices will throttle programs that promote integration in their infancy. The departure from the usual procedures presented in this discussion should at least stimulate constructive efforts on the part of others who face similar problems.

READING AND REMEDIAL READING IN A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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This paper is concerned with the problem of teaching junior high school pupils how to read. I presume that the majority of you will agree with me that there is abundant evidence to show that many of our junior high school boys and girls need instruction in the reading skills. The fact that pupils have been promoted from the sixth grades into our junior high schools has not in any way guaranteed to us that these pupils have acquired the reading skills necessary to successful accomplishment in seventh grade work. If your schools are like our schools, you are having many pupils sent on to your seventh grade who are very capable seventh graders from the point of view of physiological development, chronological age, social maturity, proficiency in arithmetic or handwriting—but who are only fourth or fifth graders as far as their reading abilities are concerned.

And we, as junior high people, are not wholly without guilt in this matter of promoting pupils to higher grades before they have attained that higher grade level of achievement in all skills, for we have promoted pupils into our eighth and ninth grades and even senior high schools who have not acquired the reading skills consistent with their grade placement. Of course, we have hastened to justify these promotions from other points of view than achievement in reading power. Our increasing respect for the *whole* child—that is, his social, emotional, and physiological development—our increasing concern for his mental health and stability, have caused us to justify our promotion of these pupils to higher grades even though we knew they could not handle effectively many of the reading assignments given to average pupils on those grade levels.

Reading surveys in our public schools in recent years have made us increasingly conscious of these reading problems in our junior high-school grades. These surveys have emphasized the wide range of achievement, the large percentage of pupils with serious retardation, and the large number of pupils whose reading ages are not equivalent to their mental ages. Take our own City of Newton for example. In September, 1935, we surveyed the reading abilities of nearly one thousand seventh grade pupils. The median grade level of reading achievement in that grade was at the seventh year, first month level, just where it should have been with a normal group. Yet the fact that our median was only at the seventh year, first month level indicated that approximately 50% of the pupils in the lower half of that class were not reading up to the level of the grade which they were beginning. The range of abilities of individual pupils in the total group ranged from the fourth year, first month, to the eleventh year, tenth month.

Twenty-six per cent (26%) of those pupils were one or more years retarded in reading ability—that is, they read only at a grade level of 6-1 or below. At the same time, 23% were a year or more accelerated—that is, they read at the eighth grade, first month level or above. Those great differences in reading abilities, those large numbers of pupils retarded or accelerated in terms of their actual grade placement, were not the result of any unusual or extraordinary factors. Similar studies of our eighth and ninth grades would have shown similar pictures.

And a check on the intelligence of those junior high pupils revealed that reading retardation was not necessarily associated with pupils of low academic ability. A check on the intelligence of that total seventh grade showed a median I. Q. of 104; yet the median I. Q. of the 243 pupils who were a year or more retarded was 99, with a range from 71 to 129. It was evident to us, therefore, that there were many pupils in that retarded group who had the potential ability to read well. There were also many pupils in the average and accelerated groups who apparently should

have read better than they were doing provided we could hope that their reading ages should be equivalent to their mental ages.

We made a check on the reading ages of pupils as compared with their mental ages in one of our large junior high schools. Among that group who were one or more years *accelerated* in reading we found 12% of the pupils whose reading ages were not up to their mental ages. Among the so-called *average* group, that is, pupils who were neither one year accelerated nor one year retarded in reading ability, we found 35% whose reading ages were not equivalent with their mental ages. In that group of pupils who were one or more years *retarded* in reading we found 76% whose reading ages were not up to their mental ages. Therefore, if we conclude that pupils whose reading ages are not up to their mental ages are retarded in reading power, then we may say that there is much retardation in reading skill in our so-called accelerated and average groups as well as in our slower divisions.

You will note that I have not discussed this problem in terms of a *remedial* reading problem. When we first started our surveys of reading achievement in the junior high grades, we were very apt to speak of all cases of reading retardation as *remedial* reading problems. Perhaps we were still assuming that the pupils who were being sent on to us from the sixth grade should have mastered the fundamental skills of reading, and that in case they had not done so, the elementary schools had not done the quality of job they should have done. Therefore, we were obliged to set up a remedy for the situation. However, after working with this problem during the past three years, we have increasingly come to feel that in terms of present-day educational psychology and philosophy we are not so much justified in speaking of our program as one of *remedial* reading as we are of speaking of it as a straight reading program. To put it in another way, we have increasingly come to feel that the teaching of reading on the junior high-school level is a natural part of our regular instructional program and not a special activity which we are obliged to add to our normal junior high-school load because the elementary schools have not done a satisfactory job of teaching the reading skills. Throughout the remainder of this paper, therefore, you will note that in reference to present-day activities we speak of our *reading* program in the junior high school, not of our *remedial* reading program. But regardless of whether or not you prefer to speak of reading instruction on the junior high-school level as straight reading or remedial reading does not alter the main problem—namely, that there are large groups of pupils needing some reading instruction in order that they may successfully handle the other instructional material given to them in their regular junior high-school subjects.

Of course, in many junior high schools we have tried to meet the great range in reading abilities by placing pupils in some sort of homogeneous groups and we have modified or enriched our regular curriculum materials to fit the abilities of these groups. Modification or enrichment of curriculum materials has helped to adjust our instructional program to the wide range of reading abilities on a grade level, but this modification or adjustment has only partially solved the problem—it has *recognized* reading differences but it may not definitely have provided for *improvement* of reading abilities so that each pupil's reading age has become equivalent to his mental age. Our problem in Newton, therefore, was to bring about such improvement if possible. This paper will outline what has been done in our city during the past three years. Some of you who are faced with similar problems may find suggestions for procedures in your own school systems. Those of you who have already established a reading program in your junior high schools may see opportunities to help us in our next steps.

As a result of our reading surveys we classified our pupils with reading problems into three groups:

Group 1. Those pupils who were one or more years retarded in reading ability and whose I. Q.'s were under 90.

Group 2. Those pupils who were one or more years retarded in reading ability but who had I. Q.'s of 90 or above.

Group 3. Those pupils who were not one or more years retarded in reading ability but whose reading ages were not as high as their mental ages.

A beginning was made by the appointment of a full-time remedial reading teacher for the junior high level. How could we use her services most advantageously. Keep in mind that Newton is a city of nearly 70,000 people, with a school population of 12,000, a junior high population of nearly 3,000. We decided to work first with that second group of pupils I have just mentioned—that is, those pupils who were below their actual grade placement in reading ability but who had good potential mental abilities. To limit the size of our first instructional groups we selected for our special reading classes those pupils who had I. Q.'s of 90 or above, but who were in the majority of cases *two* or more years retarded in their reading achievement. To 113 pupils we gave the Iowa Elementary Reading Test, a test somewhat diagnostic in nature which checks on six specific reading skills. From the results obtained, we selected 103 pupils for further intensive reading work. Each of these pupils was checked as to any physical deficiency he might have, including eyesight and hearing. This involved checks with the Betts Telebinocular Machine and with the 4-A Audiometer. On their Cumulative Medical Record Cards we found that some of the pupils had notations concerning heart trouble, gland trouble, poor teeth, and poor nutrition. As to how much influence these defects had on their reading ability we could not be

sure for there were many other pupils with these same defects who were reading quite well.

As a result of these tests and checks these 103 pupils were divided into 10 instructional groups. They were given two periods of special reading instruction per week from February to June. Periods were from forty-five minutes to fifty minutes in length. The greatest problem which we encountered with these first reading groups was the selection of reading materials which fitted their needs. We wanted to find reading materials of only fourth or fifth grade difficulty but of seventh grade interest level. Pupils in these special reading groups shied away from books which they recognized as fourth or fifth grade readers. They had a fear of reading something they had seen before or had attempted to read in the elementary grades. A check of publishing houses and our public libraries disclosed only a few publications which actually met our needs. Therefore, the special reading teacher was obliged to take small selections from many sources, to build her own work sheets, and to duplicate for her groups great numbers of practice exercises on the specific reading skills, such as the selection of a central idea of a paragraph, word meaning, location of facts, and use of dictionary. I shall not take time to review the published materials which we found helpful, but if you would like to know what they were we shall be glad to send you that information.

That this special reading work with small groups of pupils with fairly good mental capacities was beneficial may be judged from the results of retests given to these pupils at the end of the school year, after four months of special instruction. Seventy per cent of these pupils showed gains of from five to thirty months in reading ability. The median gain of the total group was eleven months, or an average of seven months more per pupil than we could have anticipated even at a normal rate of growth. Even the thirty per cent who showed little or no gain in reading power appeared to exhibit better work habits and greater comprehension on their weekly objective tests in reading at the end of their four months of instruction than at the beginning. Personal observation by the special reading teacher, comments by the pupils themselves, and comments by their other classroom teachers indicated that with few exceptions these pupils gained noticeable power in the following traits:

1. Ability to attack new assignments through written directions without further questioning of the teacher.
2. Ability to work independently with books and newspapers.
3. Ability to distinguish correct answers to a problem even though these answers might be given in a number of different forms.
4. Ability to use a dictionary effectively.
5. Ability to select the portions of assignments in which they needed special help.

Successful as this special reading work might have been it was solving only one part of our problem. In our initial groups we had taken only

those pupils who were two or more years retarded in reading and who had I. Q.'s above 90. We had done very little for pupils whose I. Q.'s were under 90, or for those pupils of higher mental ability whose reading ages were not equivalent to their mental ages. Furthermore, we had worked only with the seventh grade. Our one special reading teacher had carried a full load; yet we felt that we had only scratched the surface of our total reading problem. Special reading classes were a good beginning, but they were not enough. It became more and more clear that the teaching of reading must become the problem of all teachers of academic subjects in our junior high-school grades—particularly of those teachers who used reading materials in their classroom instruction.

Therefore, as a second step in attacking our reading problem a committee of teachers and reading specialists developed a mimeographed bulletin entitled "The Specific Skills to be Developed in a Reading Program." In this bulletin were sections on:

1. The major objectives in a reading program.
2. The specific skills in reading.
3. Suggestions for developing these skills.

Copies of this bulletin were placed in the hands of all junior high-school teachers in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. This bulletin was used as a basis for faculty discussions in the teaching of reading, and also served as a source of suggestions and devices for use in instructing pupils who were experiencing reading difficulties in any classroom. This bulletin emphasized the belief that every teacher in junior high school must consider herself a teacher of reading as well as a teacher of a special subject field. It particularly stressed the belief that little of value could be gained by placing instructional materials involving reading ability into the hands of pupils who were not able to comprehend their meaning.

Our research in connection with the establishment of the special reading groups on the seventh grade level led us to the conclusion that reading ability might well be used as one of the important criteria in placing pupils in homogeneous groups for regular instructional purposes. Up to this time we had formed our seventh grade ability groups on the basis of sixth grade I. Q.'s and the sixth grade teacher's judgment. Therefore, as a third step we introduced the Partial Battery of the Metropolitan Achievement Test at the close of the sixth grade. This gave us objective evidence as to the grade level and percentile rank of achievement in six subject fields, among which was one on reading comprehension. This objective rating of a pupil's ability in reading comprehension, when tied up with his sixth grade I. Q., his other percentile ratings on his sixth grade achievement tests, and the teacher's judgment, gave us a better basis of seventh grade ability grouping. We could now put into ability groups pupils who had approximately the same levels of reading achievement.

Reading became the primary criterion in group placement rather than intelligence.

Furthermore, in order to make these sixth grade data more useful and available for the new seventh grade teachers of a child, these data concerning the pupil's intelligence and achievement as he finished the sixth grade were recorded on his Cumulative Test Record Card, and were mimeographed for the teachers of each division at the beginning of the seventh grade. Therefore, each seventh grade teacher, on the first day of school, knew how every pupil stood in relation to every other pupil in the seventh grade in mental ability and academic achievement.

The reading comprehension test which had been given to pupils near the end of their sixth grade gave us only a general picture of a child's reading ability as compared to other pupils. It enabled us to place pupils into fast, average, or slow divisions. In order that we might work more advantageously with the reading problems of pupils it became necessary that we have much more information as to their specific reading weaknesses. We needed a diagnostic reading test. Because of the size of the problem, however, it was decided to work only with those divisions in the lower half of the class, that is, with those pupils whom the survey test showed to have some amount of retardation in reading ability. Therefore, as the fourth step in our attack on the reading problem, the diagnostic Iowa Reading Test was given to all pupils in the seventh grade who were approximately in the lower half of the total class. As I have already indicated, this test attempts to diagnose the pupil's reading ability in terms of six specific skills. The results of this diagnostic test were then mimeographed by divisions and given to all teachers of these slower divisions. Each division was analyzed in terms of its weaknesses and strengths. Therefore, teachers of a given slow division knew the strengths and weaknesses of each division and of each individual in each division on at least six reading skills.

Having all these objective data from the Metropolitan survey test, the Kuhlmann-Anderson intelligence test, and the Iowa Reading test in the first few weeks of school, the special reading teacher was able to detect quickly those pupils who apparently could profit most from special small group reading instruction. After consultation with the principals of the school these groups were formed quickly and were able to begin special reading work by October 1. Therefore, by running the reading survey test and intelligence test near the end of the sixth grade and the Iowa diagnostic reading test in the slow divisions near the very beginning of the seventh grade, we were able to start our special reading instruction for small groups four months earlier than we had done in the previous year. In our second year with the special reading groups we took those pupils with I. Q.'s of 90 or above, but who were *one* or more years retarded in

reading achievement. Former guidance and test records of these pupils seemed to indicate that there was a likelihood of speedy improvement in reading abilities for these pupils if special small group instruction were given to them.

Therefore, at the beginning of our second year special reading instruction was being provided for small groups of junior high-school pupils who had good mental ability but poor reading power. The results of survey tests of reading had been placed in the hands of all seventh grade teachers. The results of the diagnostic reading test had been placed in the hands of all teachers of the slow divisions. Therefore, we next focused our attention on that group of pupils who had relatively low intelligence quotients, that is 90 or below, and who had definite retardations in reading ability. In an experimental way we undertook to see what regular classroom teachers could do about improving the reading abilities of those slow pupils in as much as special reading teachers could not be provided for them. At first we worked with five slow divisions in one junior high school.

We had already prepared the way for this experiment by making all of the teachers of these slow divisions conscious of the reading status of each pupil in their divisions. You will recall that these teachers had been given mimeographed materials listing the I. Q.'s and the reading achievement of each pupil on the six skills tested by the Iowa reading test. Each of these teachers had been given a copy of the bulletin entitled "The Specific Skills to be Developed in a Reading Program." The teachers of these five slow divisions, therefore, were now called together to discuss ways and means of improving the reading skills of the pupils in their charge. Representative teachers from each subject field suggested methods for improving skills and study habits in that subject field. Each department listed the skills which it felt it could develop most readily in coördination with its own classroom materials.

As the next step, special books and supplementary materials were purchased for these five slow divisions. Class sets of books were bought that could be used with several divisions. Special books were bought for the English, social studies, and science classes, but not for the mathematics classes.

In this experiment the instruction in reading skills was in most cases correlated with regular classroom instruction of a specific subject.

In English, special attention was given to vocabulary building and vocabulary drill. The new books presented simple reading materials on an interest level suitable for seventh graders. Single copies of reading books were bought for the classroom libraries. Use of the central school library was encouraged and classes were taken to it for instruction in locating materials. Indexing was also emphasized.

In social studies, a book entitled "Builders of our Nation" had been selected as being admirably suited to the needs and abilities of slow divisions. A Miss Hall of Boston, developed work sheets for use with this book. These work sheets were definitely aimed at the improvement of reading skills as well as at finding factual information in this book. Vocabulary work was stressed. Classes were referred to the school library for simple research projects.

In science, vocabulary building was stressed, as well as the power of locating specific information in the Science portions of reading.

In arithmetic, the problems involving arithmetical computation presented reading difficulties. Emphasis was placed on building a simple mathematics vocabulary. By gaining word mastery before problems were to be solved, problems involving the use of fundamental arithmetical computation became more meaningful. Difficult new arithmetical terms were stressed each day as they presented themselves in connection with new problems.

In general, none of these subject teachers impressed their pupils with the fact that they were teaching or improving reading skills. Rather, these skills were expected to be an outgrowth of regular class work which had been adapted to the abilities and interests of these pupils.

What were the results of this work with slow divisions?

At the end of the year the Iowa Silent Reading Test, Elementary Form B, was given to all pupils in these five divisions. A study of the results showed that significant progress was made in the reading abilities of these pupils over an eight-month period. Whereas, 78 pupils were one or more years retarded in reading in September, only 43 pupils were one or more years retarded in May. In other words, 55% of these pupils who had been one year or more retarded made not only a normal anticipated eight-month gain, but an accelerated gain to the point that they could no longer be considered as one year or more retarded. In studying the five divisions it was significant to note that the greatest gains were made in divisions having the higher mental abilities.

This experiment was so satisfactory the first year that it was carried on a second year on the seventh grade level. Again, in the second year, slightly over 50% of the pupils were accelerated in their acquisition of reading skills to such a degree that they were no longer considered as seriously retarded—that is, not more than one year retarded in terms of their grade level. It is interesting to note that when we studied the progress made by these groups on each of the six specific skills measured by the Iowa reading test, we found the greatest gains over a year's time were made on the skills of location of information and paragraph meaning. These had been the two greatest weaknesses at the beginning of the school year.

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We are now in our fourth year of emphasis on our junior high-school reading program. Our success with special small group instruction on the seventh grade level has enabled us to expand the work to our eighth grades throughout the city. This permits a second year of special reading instruction for those pupils who did not reach their capacity or normal grade level in reading power during their seventh grade, and allows us to bring in new eighth grade pupils who may have encountered serious reading difficulties during their seventh grade regular classroom work. Pupils selected for these special small groups are generally one or more years retarded in reading ability but have I. Q.'s of 90 or above. One full-time teacher is carrying this load. At present she has about 160 pupils on the seventh and eighth grade levels throughout the city. We have not yet been able to extend this small group instruction to the ninth grades throughout the city as a whole, but a few serious ninth grade problems have been permitted to enter the eighth grade groups. Our experiences in the past three years with these small groups who were given special reading instruction have caused us to come to these conclusions and generalizations:

1. Groups for special reading instruction may be formed satisfactorily after a study of a pupil's intelligence and reading achievement tests, conference with his classroom teachers, and conference with principals and guidance counselors.
2. Pupils selected for special reading groups should have mental abilities high enough to profit from small group instruction. In general, pupils whose reading ages already equal or exceed their mental ages should not be in these groups.
3. Pupils are sensitive about their reading disabilities but are quite willing to participate in reading programs which will help them to do better school work. At times some of them are concerned because they are losing class time in other subjects in which they are especially interested or in which they are not doing creditable work. So far as possible it seems wise to have these special reading classes meet during the study periods of the pupils. Where this is not possible a rotating program by which the classes come at different periods in successive weeks proves satisfactory.
4. To conduct a satisfactory special reading program much mimeographed material must be developed and presented to these small groups. Material based on articles in current newspapers and magazines seems to hold the interest of these pupils best. Work books and regular reading books with simple reading concepts and easy vocabularies are necessary for quick progress. Books must have an interest level consistent with the natural social and chronological maturity of the pupils. The vocabulary difficulty of a book cannot be the only criterion on which it can be accepted for groups of pupils with reading difficulties. The important thing to keep in mind is the difficulty of the concepts which have been built up by these vocabularies.
5. The first essential steps in the improvement of reading are vocabulary development and knowledge of word meaning.
6. In the special reading classes, in particular, we find that if there is to be improvement in reading skill, first of all there must be much emphasis on improvement of study habits, involving settling down

to work rapidly, increasing ability to focus attention on a problem at hand for increased lengths of time, mental health problems involving emotional stability, sustained drive, calmness of approach to problems, and increased confidence in being able to solve problems.

This is our third year of work on the improvement of reading abilities in slow seventh grade divisions. The majority of pupils in these slow divisions have I. Q.'s of 90 or below and are one or more years retarded in reading ability. The emphasis on reading instruction in these slow seventh grade divisions has brought about substantial improvement for many pupils. One junior high school has now extended this emphasis on the teaching of reading skills to the slow divisions of the eighth and ninth grades as well.

Results of our work thus far with these slow divisions has led us to these conclusions:

1. Reading skills can be improved in any groups where teachers have been made conscious of the reading problems in that group and where administrative and instructional resources have been used to emphasize the need of teaching necessary reading skills first before undertaking to teach subject materials.
2. Efficient reading instruction can be carried on with slow divisions of pupils by their regular classroom teachers. No specific periods need to be set aside in these classrooms for reading instruction. However, for certain individuals in these slow divisions additional attendance in the special small group reading classes may be a great help.
3. Improvement of reading skills should be a natural outgrowth of regular classwork in the subjects which pupils on this grade level are taking. Teachers of these divisions should be made conscious of the specific reading difficulties of their pupils and should have a strong desire to improve their reading power.
4. It is probably desirable that these slow pupils be grouped for all instructional purposes according to their level of reading achievement. When all pupils in the slow divisions are at approximately the same level of reading achievement, it becomes a problem of teaching reading to those pupils as a class group rather than a problem of special reading instruction to individual pupils within that group.
5. Success in teaching reading skills can be stimulated if proper instructional materials with which to work are placed in the hands of teachers and pupils. These materials must have a vocabulary level simple enough for these pupils to comprehend and an interest level mature enough to hold their attention.
6. Work books, teacher-made checks and tests, and competitive drills, are helpful devices in improving reading skills. Visual materials appeal to these pupils and they like to see their work and progress recorded in front of them. Constant written checks give pupils a greater sense of security and stability and they are enabled to know where they stand comparatively in each reading skill at a given time.

Thus, looking back, we feel that progress has been made with two of our groups of pupils who may be considered retarded in reading:

1. Those pupils who are one or more years retarded with I. Q.'s of 90 or above.
2. Those pupils retarded to any degree in terms of their grade placement but who have I. Q.'s below 90.

Thus far we have not made an organized attack on the problem of the third group of pupils with reading retardation, namely, those pupils who *are* up to their grade placement but whose reading ages are not equivalent to their mental ages.

In conclusion, I would like to point out that reading in our junior high schools in Newton, therefore, has now been through about the same stages of development as many programs of guidance. Whereas, to-day we consider all junior high-school teachers responsible for general elements of guidance, so do we now consider all junior high-school teachers to be responsible for the teaching of reading. Just as our guidance counselors are specialists who work with problems requiring more time than the classroom or home-room teacher can give them, so does our full-time reading teacher act as a specialist with regard to reading problems. Just as guidance could not be separated from the total instructional program and placed in a separate compartment, so have we found it to be the case with reading. Therefore, a program which started out as Remedial Reading Program with most of its activities centered in the hands of specialists has now expanded to the extent that it is integrated with practically every subject in the junior high school.

ADMINISTERING MODERN CURRICULUM PROGRAMS*

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More study has been made of the reorganization of curriculum materials than of administrative arrangements to make the reorganizations function. If the modern programs are to become school practice, it is necessary that high-school principals understand the bc is for the modern curriculum movement and make every effort to reorganize the administration of their schools to make these programs operate properly. To one studying the curriculum field it seems that four movements through which the curriculum has gone in the past few years are worth indicating.

The first step in reorganization was pretty largely one which has been called the cultural epoch stage. Schools using this approach were endeavoring to secure an orientation to the culture of particular nations by enabling the child to get broad sweeps of major movements. These organizations retained their subject matter divisions and dealt with such things as the culture of Western Europe, the language and literature of America, and the development of American democracy. The next stage may be called the broad fields period, during which reorganizations took

*The discussion herewith presented pertains only to the paper of Mr. Manley as the other two papers were not received prior to the meeting.

place chiefly in the social studies, the sciences, and the humanities. Under these programs subject matter organization was largely retained. These courses were sometimes known as orientation in physical sciences or in biological sciences, and orientation in American life, including the economic, social and historical aspects of the development of American culture. Following these came attempts at fusion, during which teachers in two or more fields endeavored to correlate their work. A teacher of American Literature, for instancce, would team up with one of American History and endeavor to work out the courses so that each contributed to the other. Music, literature, graphic and plastic arts, social studies, and science were largely included in these programs.

The most recent attempt at reorganization is one in which the purpose is to develop what is known as the core curriculum. This core curriculum represents a selection of problems which teachers believe to be common to all boys and girls. The materials are drawn from an analysis of the needs of youth and the needs of society at large. In some places subject matter boundaries are disregarded; in others, organizations are proposed which pretty largely retain subject matter divisions but the essential ideas of each subject matter are related to some major pattern agreed upon in advance.

The first three types of organization do not present any material difficulties of administration. It is only when one begins to break down subject divisions and to group previously taught subject matter under larger headings that the problem of administering such an organization takes on significant difficulty. Such problems as teacher insecurity, supply of materials of instruction, the scheduling of classes, and the granting of credit emerge as troublesome administrative issues. Let us look at each of these briefly.

Teachers who have been trained in major and minor subjects in college and who have for a period of years been teaching these subjects in high school feel somewhat insecure when called upon to discover the problems of youth and to administer to youth needs by the selection of appropriate content from many fields of learning. The problem is even more acute in situations where the teachers have not built the major concepts underlying the reorganization of the program. Teachers are rightly challenging the ideal of being called upon to reorganize completely their pattern of experience, especially when this pattern has been built up over an extended period of time.

This challenge, however, does not imply that the idea is preposterous or that the attempt to reorganize learning experiences in this fashion should be abandoned. It does, however, force the administrator to make ample provision for building power in the teachers to teach successfully the new courses. Several attempts are being made to pro-

vide this kind of an in-service program of education of teachers. In some situations workshops are developed where teachers get together for a summer and collectively work out materials which they consider to be valuable for core courses. Another plan is to have teachers during the academic year or during summer develop what is sometimes called source units. These units represent the selection of desirable learning activities, appropriate reference materials, and suggested means of evaluation for each problem which is to be used in the core class. Other places ask committees to work during the school year by having daily conference periods where all the core teachers may discuss their problems and counsel with one another. Some schools are trying a flexible schedule plan whereby core courses are rotated so that each teacher may be able to teach the material with which she is most familiar. Some of these plans may be considered as transition steps. Certainly, those which tend to retain subject divisions and let the teachers teach the place where he feels most comfortable are of this type. On the other hand, extended work needs to be done in building power in teachers to handle core classes themselves, rather than to split the class into two or three one-hour divisions, giving each period to a different teacher.

The problem of securing appropriate materials becomes quite important where library funds are low. Teachers seem to feel the need for more classroom libraries with core classes and the provision of this seems to mean supplying from $100 to $200 per classroom as a general rule. Much pamphlet material can be purchased, but there is a very definite need for assistance of the library staff and of other competent help to aid the teacher in finding appropriate core materials, in mimeographing materials, and in arranging the desired settings within a given classroom. There is also need for assistance in supplying visual aid and in handling smaller groups for excursions. Some school systems are making very definite budgetary provisions for substitute teachers to do work of this character. Other schools are using cadet teachers from teacher training institutions, and others are adding to their libraries and secretarial staff. Frequently this plan seems to have merit over the one of dividing reasonable sized classes into smaller groups and employing additional teachers.

The problem of scheduling becomes complicated where subject matter lines are to be broken down and when classes are to extend over two or three successive hours. Many experimental schools believe the most satisfactory arrangement from the teaching angle where the problem of teacher security has been met is to schedule blocks of pupils with certain teachers for about two hours, thus giving each teacher two different groups and saving the fifth hour for conferences among all the core teachers. The plan of scheduling teachers by having them rotate

offers considerable difficulty, as well as any plan which sets out to recombine certain subjects.

The problem of granting credit seems to be the easiest to solve. Some principals simply specify a certain number of units for each of the conventional subjects. Others make arrangements with colleges for giving credit for certain fields for each core course pursued. Where the pupil is not going to college, the problem of granting credit should be worked out directly with parents and the core course should be specified on the reports. Where the pupil is going to college, and arbitrary decision as to the amount of credits should be made by the school, or an agreement may be reached with the college to which most of the pupils are going. In developing core courses, one cannot overstress the importance of keeping adequate cumulative records of pupils' development, as well as of the types of experiences each class has met. If I may be permitted an aside, it is this, that the cumulative record is not satisfactory until it has started with the pupil in the kindergarten, followed him through all of his high-school years, and graduated with him at the end of his school career.

Mr. Manley has mentioned some things of which I should like to approve most heartily. He has suggested that the development of curriculum materials is a very valuable experience for all teachers. I should like to add that it is likewise a very valuable one for principals. He has indicated that he approves the trend of cutting across subject matter lines in the building of core courses. If the problems and needs of youth are to be dealt with in the secondary schools and if the pupils are to be guided as he has suggested, all teachers must study means whereby this can be achieved. Subject matter lines need to give way to basic principles of reorganization in harmony with the needs of youth, and sufficient coöperation among teachers must be expected to enable the program to succeed. The development of an adequate in-service training program is necessary, and time must be granted to the teachers to do the deliberation and creative thinking that is necessary to produce adequate reorganizations. Our core courses cannot stand the test of critical thinking unless they represent the best collective judgment and research of our teachers. If society is interested in a reorganized school system, it must not throw the entire responsibility for such reorganization upon either the leisure time or the personal financial power of the teacher. A lack of appropriate time to develop courses adequately constitutes one of the reasons for the feeling of insecurity which many teachers have. I should like also to approve of the emphasis upon adequate school supplies and the construction of appropriate buildings, as well as the emphasis upon the very vital part which school administrators have to play.

It seems worth while to indicate that the many interpretations of terms is somewhat confusing. The term "general education" is usually applied to both core work and special interest courses which the pupils may pursue in the secondary school. There may be some doubt of the wisdom of using the term "general education" and "core courses" synonymously.

I should like to express some concern over considering the core courses as a convenient way of grouping any previously organized subjects, such as science, English, social studies, or mathematics. While this may, as I previously indicated, be for some an intermediate step it should be clear in the minds of those who use it that if the ideal of the core courses, as it now exists, is to be realized, evidently this notion of combining subject fields needs to be abolished. Tulsa is experiencing some difficulty with this in one of those plans where it takes each unit, breaks it up into four parts such as mathematics, science, English and social studies, and allows each teacher to take one part for teaching. Movements should be away from this as rapidly as possible.

In a curriculum movement it is necessary first to decide what the important problems of youth are which society should serve through the school. This needs to be followed by a definite attempt on the part of the school to exercise leadership in community reorganization of all educational forces having part in the development of youth. When these problems are discovered and some general policy is set up regarding the relationship of all social institutions within the community, ample provision must be made for carrying out this program. Any modern curriculum organization requires teachers who are far more competent than the average teacher in the past, and requires also more and different kinds of school equipment. When these prior decisions are made (and all school and community leaders should share in making them), the administrator, if he adequately discharges his function, should make it possible for the desired organization to succeed. The scheduling of classes should take no prior consideration to the needs of the curriculum program.

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL DIVISION

The Senior High-School Group in Club Room B of the Public Auditorium, presided over by Oscar Granger, Principal of Haverford Township High School of Upper Darby, Pennsylvania, was called to order promptly at 2:00 P. M.

Mr. Herbert G. Espy, Professor of Education in Western Reserve University, graciously consented to take Francis T. Spaulding's place on the program, and spoke to the subject, Significant Contributions from the New York State Regents' Inquiry.

SIGNIFICANT CONTRIBUTIONS FROM THE NEW YORK STATE REGENTS' INQUIRY

MR. HERBERT ESPY: You are very kind.

I told Mr. Spaulding a little while ago that probably I might be through here very early. I suspected that the major part of this audience would remove itself from this room and wait until the second speaker is on deck.

Fortunately I have here to-day a rather detailed outline which Dr. Spaulding himself prepared for this talk and I shall perforce refer to this outline very frequently.

Mr. Brooks, who is sitting here in the front row, when he saw the handwriting on the sheet, immediately identified it as Spaulding's; he looked at the first page and said, "I would like to copy all of that; I wish that as you come to these points, point by point you would pause and read them slowly so that I can take them down." I don't know whether I can do that, but I shall have to refer to this outline frequently. That may make things a little bit less smooth than they would otherwise be, but I want as far as I can to say as faithfully as I can, what I think Spaulding would wish to say if he were here.

This outline covers only a small part of what you will find if you will read Spaulding's report on the secondary education investigation carried on under the Regents' Inquiry. The title of that book is "High School and Life"; it is a recent publication of McGraw-Hill, although I get no cut from them I am glad to urge you to examine that book if you have opportunity. There will be a good deal in it which will not appear here to-day.

Now just a brief word about the purposes of the study of secondary education, under the Regents' Inquiry.

In the first place it was to determine whether or not the secondary schools in New York are good or whether they are not good. That seems like a very obvious thing to say. There was no desire to find out whether the schools were better than the average of secondary schools in the country; there was no desire to find out whether they were as good as schools might be, or worse than schools might reasonably be expected to be; there was the desire to discover whether or not the schools are doing in New York State a job which is good for New York State or not good for New York State.

In the second place it was hoped that it would be possible to make certain recommendations for the improvement of the schools. We just took it for granted that the schools would not be perfect and it seemed to be expected that an inquiry ought to have some recommendations to

make, but I shall not have very much to say here about the recommendations, but rather the findings.

The methods used in conducting this inquiry will perhaps elucidate somewhat these purposes.

The primary approach was to discover if possible the social competence of the boys and girls who are leaving in New York State, the secondary schools every year. This was, I think, something of a departure from customary survey procedure. Before there was any effort to examine the schools themselves by visitation or questionnaire or other resort, it seemed desirable to find out what boys and girls like when they leave these schools, whether they leave after having been graduated or whether they drop out somewhere along the way. In either case their formal education has usually been ended and they go out to take their place in the community for good or for ill, regardless of whether or not they have received diplomas.

In getting evidence with respect to the social competence of these boys and girls, a variety of approaches was used. In the first place there was a pretty extensive survey testing program, covering some fifty-three thousand boys and girls who were presumably about to leave school, whether they happened to be in the tenth grade, the eleventh grade, the twelfth grade, or whether they were registered as p. g.'s. When we found in any considerable school that there were a considerable number of people leaving those grades we tested those grades, not so much with a measure of some academic procedure but also to consider the kind of understanding, the kind of ability which seemed to make for social competence—using that term in its broad sense.

There were also in addition to these test evidences, reports from the schools themselves. The schools of the state were invited to submit to the inquiry reports on all the individuals who left school during one calendar year, over three hundred of the some nine hundred secondary schools in the state volunteered to do that, and we had reports on some fifty-three thousand boys and girls who had left school, individual reports requiring a good deal of time and effort on the part of the teachers who knew these youngsters.

In addition to that information and partly as a check on it, there were personal interviews with over two thousand of the boys and girls,—they had all been tested; they had been reported on by the schools—personal interviews with them, with their employers if any, and with other adults who knew them, to find out more about them, and also as I have said to serve as a check on the other information got through testing and through reports from the schools.

Some people said that school people didn't know the youngsters and if they did know them they would not tell the truth. We weren't sure

whether that accusation was justified, but we thought we ought to be prepared to indicate whether or not it was.

Now what about the findings, with respect to the social competence of these youngsters? It seemed to us most important to consider their readiness for citizenship, and we went at that from a number of standpoints. It can fairly be said that the boys and girls who left these secondary schools probably know more about the facts of American history than do most adults in this country. They know for example that it was Herbert Hoover who distinguished himself in the food administration at the time of the World War; they can tell us a good deal about the structure of the American Government as it is presented in civics, in government textbooks. They are familiar with the particular events of American history. It can fairly be said, however, that they are much less familiar with the governmental and political conditions in their own communities at the present time. Most of them are acquainted with the political bias or affiliation of the community, but most of them do not know what is the political bias of the local newspaper or newspapers. Most of them do not know for example how the birth rates in their community compare with those in other communities; they do not know whether electrical rates are higher or lower than in other communities, and even in those New York State communities where social conditions are almost pathologic, that is where community life is sadly declining, the youngsters there seem quite unaware of any differences that there might exist between their towns and other towns.

By and large we can say that they are almost completely ignorant of the political, social, industrial conditions in their own home towns.

Now with respect to world affairs they are fairly intelligent concerning the headline characters in the news. They are, by and large, not very well acquainted, however with what might be called underlying conditions.

For example most of these youngsters leaving school in New York State attached no significance to the time when Roosevelt was inaugurated; they seemed not to have heard very much about the lame duck amendment. They know Hitler of course, although we did not ask them about Hitler at the time this survey was conducted a couple of years ago. They know the headlines, but they seem to be ignorant of what goes on beneath the headlines.

Their familiarity with the traditional rights of American citizens is comforting. They know what is meant by free speech and freedom of assembly. I should say they understand those things and they are disposed to give at least lip service to them. Those who question the principles of our young people may take comfort in the fact that these young-

sters at least seem to know what we mean by the democratic way of life in America.

In connection with that matter there were given to these youngsters some tests, special tests to see whether they could identify in school conditions, things that went on right in the school or in local community, conditions, exemplifications of these democratic principles. For example the pupils were asked: suppose that the youngsters in this school were completely dissatisfied with the management of their student council affairs, what should they do?

They were given a number of choices and asked to:

Have the whole thing turned over to the principal.

Fire all the officers and reprimand them severely.

and a number of other alternatives.

They were also asked to suppose that a prominent and successful business man, well qualified for public office were asked to accept the nomination for public office at the cost of personal inconvenience, and inconvenience in his business, what should he do?

Well, these youngsters by and large recognized what would be the American thing to do but they said if he were smart he would decline the nomination. These youngsters by and large, and increasingly so as they remained longer in school, declined for themselves to take any inconvenience or to put forth effort in behalf of the general welfare.

Now that is a pretty strong statement.

The junior high school boy or girl in a good many cases, I should say about one-half of the junior high school pupils said that they would gladly give some of their time to cleaning up the school grounds if necessary; they believed that a citizen should go to some inconvenience to help beautify a public square near his own home, but as these youngsters went on further through school when they got to be seniors, fewer of them were willing to undertake such measures at the cost of their own convenience.

Those things are illustrative—the things I have mentioned are merely illustrations—of what seems to be a decline in the willingness of these boys and girls conscientiously to inconvenience themselves for the general welfare.

We don't know what the sources may be, but somewhere, either in school or out of school, these boys and girls seem to have applied the philosophy which as the report has it is, "Let George Do It."

After these boys and girls leave school they show no great tendency to participate in what might be called civic or social affairs: as a matter of fact only a minority of them are members of any organized group; about one-sixth of these boys and girls are usually members of some sort of religious or church organization. Smaller percentages are members of boy or girl scout or similar youth organizations. As I remember about

one-twentieth, maybe it is a few more, I cannot remember whether it is one-sixteenth or one-twentieth of the boys and girls in rural communities are members of Future Farmers organizations or 4-H Clubs, and things of that type, but by and large these youngsters are without direct affiliation with organized groups of any sort.

In general the youngsters who have left school are without much contact with adults, either as individuals or adult agencies, from which they might wisely and sensibly get assistance and advice.

In the personal interviews with these boys and girls there was a rather striking fact which appears again and again. The boy who was asked what his problems are in many cases said that he hadn't any, even though he was out of a job, loafing, wondering just when his chance would come, he would say: "No, I haven't any problems."

"Well, to whom would you go if you did have a serious problem?"

The typical answer was, "I woudn't go to anyone, I would stand on my own feet, I solve my problems myself."

You cannot help but admire that independence of spirit, but when you consider the situations that many of these youngsters are in, we might be more comfortable if they had the disposition and habit to consult older people, perhaps if only to get good advice from them.

Many of these youngsters seem not to have the idea that there was any place where you could go for advice. A good many mentioned the school, although they said that the people in school were so busy that they would not wish to bother them or the people in school were good guys but they wouldn't have time, or they might not know in some cases, what these youngsters were up against. In general the youngsters said, and they seemed in most cases to be right, that their parents had enough on their minds without having to bother too much about the problems that their sons and daughters were up against.

In a good many cases, I should say in the majority of cases of boys and girls who were unemployed and out of school, parents reported that they didn't know where the son or daughter could be found, that he would be back supper time, and he would be there to sleep, but they did not know where he is now. The interviewers found the best time to catch a boy was about supper time, but by and large these young people out of school seemed somewhat adrift, without personal moorings and without very much assistance that they knew how to make use of.

We considered also their readiness for making suitable use of their leisure and leisure was one thing that a good many of them had lots of. We tried to find out what their hobbies are and a good many of them reported: yes, they had hobbies. I think a typical illustration of the kind of hobby most of these people reported was that of the boy who said, "Yes I have a war collection; let me show you my war collection." The

war collection turned out to be a trench helmet, a shrapnel case, a bayonet. He had had them for a good long while. I don't know where he got them, but they were his hobby. In general the individual hobbies that these youngsters had were pretty much of that sort. A good many of them, however, go in for group hobbies, involving social dancing, music, athletics, dramatics. Those things seem to have come pretty directly from the schools. We did not find evidence of a single French Club membership, although French Clubs are the most popular subject-matter clubs in New York State. I might go so far as to say that so far as our interviews with these two thousand leaving pupils were concerned we did not find a single pupil who reported himself as having been reading any French. French just was not mentioned in connection with any of that business.

These youngsters do a good deal of reading, most of their reading is in the daily newspapers and in the less expensive magazines. A good many of the boys and girls when asked what they were reading would say, "I know what I should be reading, but this is what I am reading now," and they would point perhaps to a pulp magazine, Liberty, Saturday Evening Post, Colliers. By and large they were not reading magazines of liberal opinion, for example about one in three hundred of these boys and girls who had left school mentioned having read either the New Republic or The Nation. In general the character of their reading does not suggest that they are keeping alive or increasing whatever understanding of social problems they had when they left school, that is, they may have had considerable interest in what is going on in the world, but once they leave their reading is not of the sort to maintain what the school has given them, and if they have left without what they should have their further reading in most cases is not the sort of thing which would increase their understanding of social problems or their competence as citizens.

These youngsters who have left school listen a great deal of the time to the radio, as a matter of fact many of them spend more time at that than at any other one thing. The things they listen to chiefly are the variety programs, many of them sponsored by the manufacturers of quickly prepared soups and desserts.

As I remember Boake Carter who was on the air at that time ranked about twenty-fourth; the Town Meeting of the Air, the Farm and Home Hour, and Lowell Thomas were tied for eighty-fourth place, that is among the programs that these people habitually listened to Jack Benny—by-the-way, Charlie McCarthy was not then in the limelight—Jack Benny and his confreres were right up at the top.

By and large the radio listening of these youngsters is not the sort of thing which promises to increase their social competence greatly. In fact it is chiefly a matter of relaxation and perhaps I should interpolate by saying that we see no objection to relaxation as such.

In general these youngsters after they have left school seemed to have very little opportunity to carry on any active interests which the school may have developed. With respect to their preparation for further learning, you may be interested in knowing that these youngsters are thoroughly sold on the value of schooling. Some people have thought that a good many youngsters are fed up with school, that they want to get away and have something different, but if these youngsters are a typical sample, the one thing that you can say about most of them, most emphatically is that they think that school is fine stuff; they want more of it, and if you ask them about their ambitions, many of them, in fact I should say the majority of them want to go on with their future schooling of some sort. In fact they have the idea that if you want to learn anything the way to do it is to sign up for a course, the idea of learning something on your own or learning something for fun does not appear very often.

Their chief reason for wishing further schooling, whether they are now definitely enrolled or whether they are hoping or planning to attend, is personal advantage, usually vocational.

One of the members of the inquiry in this connection made quite an extensive study with the sponsorship and assistance of the Principals Association of New York State, in an attempt to find out what things led pupils either to withdraw or to wish to remain in school. Next to the financial consideration which we can all understand, a very close second is the vocational motive. Youngsters planning to drop out of school say that they would return to school if they thought that that would help them to get a job or to get a better job, and youngsters planning to remain in school ordinarily say that they would drop out if they thought that by dropping out they could improve their chances to get a job or better job. The vocational motive is strong.

Unfortunately many of these youngsters impelled by this vocational motive become the dupes of questionable proprietary schools, so-called schools of Diesel Engineering, Air-Conditioning, Engineering, Aviation, Beauty Culture, Photography, Dramatics—whatnot. Many of them doubtless well-intentioned and substantial ventures, but many of them chiefly commercial, operating without very much consideration for the pupil's possibilities, aptitudes, take thousands of dollars from these youngsters who have recently left school. A good example is the case of a boy who withdrew from school, I think in the tenth grade. He had been in a commercial curriculum in school. He signed up for a course in electrical engineering; tuition was a hundred and fifty dollars. He had to give a note for the whole thing. After the third week he found that it took a knowledge of algebra which he had never possessed and he had to drop it. At the time our interviewer found the boy some months after, he was just about finishing up the payments on that hundred and fifty dollar tuition

fee. That boy is not an exception at all. We found hundreds of boys in that situation, so that these youngsters seemed to have a lack of information about the kind of educational opportunities that are open to them and by and large they seemed to be involved in courses pretty much in proportion to the availability or existence of those courses nearby. If there are organized opportunities available they take them; if there is nothing near at hand they do not get them. They take what comes without very adequate planning.

Most of these boys and girls are able satisfactorily to meet the businessman's criticism that boys and girls come out of school without being able to do arithmetic, without being able to write acceptable English, and without the other essential R's. There are however a considerable proportion, we can say roughly about one-fifth of the youngsters in the senior classes these youngsters who are about ready to leave school, who seem unable to meet ordinary eighth grade standard of performance in the solution of simple arithmetic problems, in written English usage. That is not a bad showing, and perhaps you say: well why mention it? Most every school has people who are below average. This is an illustration of the fact though that it seemed to be appropriate to find out how many youngsters were leaving the schools without having a fairly decent minimal competence, that is regardless of how good some of the youngsters may be, and some of these youngsters did beautiful work in their written English, some of the letters they wrote were the finest letters I have ever seen, but what New York State has to concern itself about particularly is the fact that in many of the schools as many as twenty per cent of the high-school seniors cannot pass an ordinary eighth grade arithmetic problem test, at least they couldn't at the time these tests were given in 1936.

What about their readiness for jobs? Their employers seemed to be much interested in them, fairly well pleased with them and they seem to be getting along all right. That is the employer seemed in general to have a fairly cheerful attitude toward these youngsters who come for work.

The youngsters themselves are not so well pleased, not so well satisfied, many of them shift from job to job; many of them of course are loafing—have no jobs. A good many of them seem to have no idea about how you go at it to get a job. In fact some of the employers said that these boys ask some funny questions when they come to apply. Many said the most common question these boys ask, and the first question, is "Do you pay good wages here?" The employers seemed to think that the boy who asked that question first was not a particularly good candidate for a job, yet many of them said the boys turned out pretty well even though they had asked the question.

It appears that there is good reason why a good many of these boys and girls do not know very much about job opportunities, how to get a

job, and one reason why they don't, and I hope that not too many people from New York State who are here will be displeased at this. One reason why they don't is that many of the secondary schools in New York State do nothing systematically about guidance. I want to register some exceptions. The junior high schools of the state are notable for the extent to which they do something about guidance; the vocational schools of the state ordinarily do much more than the academic schools do, and there are here and there throughout the state certain school systems which are doing notable work, it seems to us, in guidance and placement of youngsters. I see down here before me the superintendent of schools in one of those communities where we found a guidance office which seemed to be doing so realistic, so wise, so efficient a job, that it was an inspiring thing to be there in that community and see that job done. It illustrates that it can be done, but apparently the reason why a good many of these youngsters come out of schools without knowing much about what they are up against in the way of jobs is that the schools themselves ordinarily have not undertaken to do very much about it.

I have mentioned particularly certain deficiencies or lacks in the out-of-school competence of these young people. I should like merely to mention now what seemed to be some of the reasons for these deficiencies, and I shall point out that perhaps the mere mention of the deficiencies themselves will tend to indicate what some remedies might be.

In the first place the out-of-school influences upon these youngsters certainly have very little serious influence upon their attitude. For example they listen to the radio, they listen a lot; they read cheap pulp magazines to a very considerable extent, and those youngsters who seemed most handicapped, particularly those who dropped out of school early, give more attention to the movies and to the radio than do the more competent youngsters who remain in school longer, and who get along better when they leave. It is quite obvious that one of the strong influences on these young people is their radio listening habit. I don't know that we can do very much about the radio; it is possible that the schools themselves while the boys and girls are there, can give some attention to the radio; perhaps help these youngsters to be more discriminating in their selection of radio, and movie. Perhaps I should have said that a good many of the youngsters who drop out of school early attend the movies about three times a week. If you ask them what kind of movies they go to they say they go to whatever happens to be on at the nearest movie house. It would seem that possibly the schools could do more to help youngsters make wise selection of these things while they are in school.

Another explanation is the primary concern of the schools with academic achievement, and academic—well, you might almost say motions. There are a good many schools where, when the principals were asked

which students they could recommend to take their places as responsible citizens, recommended everybody who got a diploma, but practically everybody who had failed to get a diploma was not recommended for citizenship. In some cases we went to the principals and asked them: why is it that so many of these youngsters could not be recommended for citizenship? We got the answer immediately, "They haven't got their diplomas."

We said, "What about these boys who were within two or three months of graduation when they left school, what is the matter with them?"

"Well, they haven't got their diplomas." In the typical New York state secondary school there seems to be a great deal of reverence, devotion, to this business of accumulating the regents' marks, the academic credits that bring forth regents' diplomas, and the—I don't know that I should say the over-emphasis, but the more or less exclusive concern with preparation for the diploma itself seems to be one of the explanations for some of these deficiencies.

Another explanation seems to be the tendency of the schools not to recognize the importance of out-of-school agencies, organizations, which could be capitalized while these youngsters are in school and after they leave. I take it that needs no particular explanation.

Another apparent explanation is the tendency of the schools not to take any responsibility for a youngster once he has discontinued formal membership. This is a rather extreme example. In one of the large high schools of the state the principal said that he would be very glad to coöperate with us in providing reports on the pupils who had left school and everything seemed fine. He wrote to us shortly however, and said, "I am sorry there is not anybody in our school who knows these boys and girls, who were graduated"—this was in October.

We said there must be somebody. He said, "No, she is on leave of absence in Europe."

There happened to be some seven hundred boys and girls in that graduating class. He said, "We can give you their grades, we can give you their names; in some cases we can give you their street addresses, but that is all we can give you."

That is an extreme case. There were other instances in which the principal or some other school officer seemed to know all about these youngsters; as a matter of fact, we got one report that I shall remember a long time. The principal in a little village away out in the sticks in New York sent in a report. We glanced at it, and the principal had said: this boy is working in the cutting room of Warner Brothers. We thought: well that is doing pretty well. Later on we wondered whether he was telling a fairy story. We got in touch with him. He told us all about the boy and how he was coming along in Hollywood. The fact that he was in Holly-

wood may have had something to do with his being so well known in his home town, but there were some schools that could give us all sorts of information about what their youngsters were doing, but the schools didn't know nearly so much about what their youngsters did immediately upon leaving school as they had known about them while they were in school. That seems to be one of the explanations.

Now what might be said of the general significance of this study of secondary education?

I don't know whether it has very much. I am disposed to think that perhaps there are two fairly important things in it, one certainly. I think it tends to illustrate the possibility of a pragmatic assessment of the accomplishments of the secondary school. Many people say education is the substance of things hoped for; the evidence of things not seen; it is intangible, you mustn't examine us too carefully because these results we are working for, we cannot be sure about. Anyhow you will have to take it on faith.

The American people are not now particularly disposed to go on taking too many things on faith; in fact, I might say you would suspect their ancestors had all come from Missouri; they are beginning to be pretty skeptical—they want to be shown with reference to school work. I say this because it certainly wasn't my idea; I think that this attempt to study the secondary schools in terms of the pragmatic results, the characteristics of their products gives school people a handle to, a way of grappling with this problem of convincing the layman of the accomplishments of the schools, and demonstrating to the layman the ways in which the schools perhaps need further strengthening and assistance; that certainly is one contribution which this inquiry may make.

Another suggestion is that it demonstrates that the acceptance of an average is hardly a satisfactory way in which to assess the achievements of the schools. Although we made no attempt to find out specifically, I believe these New York state schools are well above the average of the country. You say: well, they ought to be, especially if you live in New York, but whether or not they are above the average or not perhaps does not make so much difference. This study tends to call attention to the fact that the students who are perhaps well below the average of competence educated by the State are the important ones for us to be considering, whether they happen to be very few or very large.

I hope that I have done at least one thing; I think it is possible I have —you may think: well, I understand so little of what was said, or I disagree with so much of what was said, that I think I would like to read Brother Spaulding himself, in his book, "High School and Life" and see what this business is all about.

Thank you very much. [Applause]

Following Professor Espy's presentation, the chairman introduced W. C. Reavis, Professor of Secondary Education of the University of Chicago.

SIGNIFICANT CONTRIBUTIONS FROM THE MODERN HIGH SCHOOL AT WORK

WILLIAM C. REAVIS
Professor of Education, University of Chicago

Condemning the high school has become almost a pastime with many people in the United States. They criticize the high school on the ground that it lags behind contemporary social, economic, and political developments and imply that it is rapidly becoming an "outmoded" institution. That some basis for the criticism exists cannot be denied, for there are in the United States to-day many high schools that have failed to make the adjustments which changing conditions appear to require. On the contrary, it can be easily shown that the criticism is too sweeping in character, and that the critics are frequently guilty of mixing figures of speech. To pursue the issue for a moment, it should be pointed out that the work of our poorest high schools should not be compared with the outstanding achievements in social, economic, and political organization and administration to the general disadvantage of all high schools. If mediocre accomplishments in civil affairs and mediocre work in the schools or superior achievements in civil affairs and outstanding accomplishments in the schools are compared, the disparity implied on the part of the schools would largely, if not completely, disappear. It is therefore evident that the wholesale condemnation of secondary schools serves no useful purpose and that acquiescence in such general criticism by secondary-school leaders places them in an unfavorable position with respect to making specific improvements where needed.

No one in secondary education looks to the poor or mediocre schools for leadership in the solution of current educational problems. The deficiencies of such schools are already well known. If not, they can soon be ascertained by reading the National Survey of Secondary Education. It is the remedies to the deficiencies that are at present matters of major concern, and for assistance in finding remedies we should look to the contributions being made by superior schools rather than to the implied superior achievements in social, economic, and political affairs.

There are many outstanding high schools in the United States that are making significant contributions to educational improvement. Many of these schools were studied in the National Survey of Secondary Education in 1930-31 and their contributions appraised. While the influence on high schools in general of the appraisal of practices in these superior

schools has not been revolutionary, there are good reasons for believing that the effects have been salutary and will continue to be beneficial for many years. It is therefore important that persons engaged in secondary education should look to the superior schools for leadership in solving the problems confronting high schools generally to-day.

That many high schools are active in seeking solutions to their problems is revealed in the recent report of the United States Office of Education.[1] Of the 23,213 secondary schools reporting to the Office of Education, 6,639, or 28.6 per cent, have undergone internal reorganization of a fundamental character. By far, the greatest number of these reorganizations—3,936, or 59.3 per cent—were of the junior-senior and undivided six-year types. Obviously, this type of reorganization results in a greatly increased enrollment and provides a condition better adapted to the solution of secondary-school problems in the small and medium-sized communities than that provided by the conventional high-school plan. On the contrary, the divided high school, or three-year junior and three-year senior high schools, may offer advantages in organization and administration in larger communities not provided in school systems having the eight-year elementary and four-year secondary plan. Evidently, then, nearly a third of our American high schools have, at least, made a gesture toward improvement, since it was shown in the National Survey of Secondary Education[2] that the reorganized schools have attempted internal adjustments advocated by leaders in reorganization to a greater extent than the conventionally organized schools. These adjustments were found to be especially noteworthy (1) in flexibility and comprehensiveness in the program of studies, (2) in the improvement of the scheduling of classes, (3) in athletic and non-athletic extra-curriculum activities, (4) in provisions for articulation, (5) in systematic provisions for educational and vocational guidance, and (6) in the increase in the qualifications of teachers in the junior high school unit.[3]

While it is generally admitted that the typical secondary school that has undergone reorganization as a means of effecting internal improvements still has large problems to solve before it reaches the standards of our most outstanding schools, nevertheless, the mere fact that the reorganization has been effected creates a favorable attitude for further improvement on the part of administrative officers, teachers, pupils, and supporting community. Each of these reorganized schools may therefore be regarded as a potential contributor to secondary-school improvement.

It is not my intention to imply that the regular high schools that have not undergone reorganization may not also be alert to the problems now

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[1]Jessen, Carl A. *Trends in Secondary Education*, p. 8. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1937.

[2]Monograph No. 1, p. 55. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932.

[3]*Ibid.*, p. 56.

confronting the secondary schools of the United States and are not concerned with internal improvements. Some of the most progressive schools to be found are of the regular four-year type. Their leaders have been sentient to the needs of secondary-school pupils and have instituted improvements of the most advanced type. This generalization is supported by the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education, which revealed a considerable number of these regular schools reporting not only all the innovative practices of the reorganized schools but also other advanced practices as well.[4] However, when all the high schools studied were considered as a whole, the difference in innovative practices between the conventional and reorganized schools definitely favored the latter group.

Since the evidence shows that a considerable proportion of the high schools of the United States are engaged in various types of internal improvements, efforts should be put forth to report their outstanding activities in order that schools in general may be informed regarding the important contributions that are being made. An example of such reporting on a small scale has been attempted by the editor of the *School Review* in the section entitled "Here and There Among High Schools" started in January, 1936. In twenty-five issues of the *Review* published since the section was started, one hundred eighty contributions have been voluntarily reported from schools distributed over thirty-nine states, the District of Columbia, and the Canal Zone. Approximately one-third of these contributions dealt with curriculum problems; one-fifth, with extra-curriculum activities; and the remainder with guidance, public relations, reports to parents, provisions for individual differences, internal reorganization, the school plant, and management. The attitude of the profession toward these contributions is reflected by numerous requests from administrative officers and teachers for additional information regarding the working of the practices reported.

In the area of the curriculum alone, the phase of secondary education now presenting the greatest problems, the United States Office of Education[5] reports the receipt of 699 published contributions since 1934. Five hundred ten of these contributions came from city school systems, ninety-five from county systems, and ninety-four from state departments of education. Each contribution received is listed in a recent bulletin of the Office of Education by subject, year of publication, and grade for which it is intended, with city, county, or state sponsoring the publication, and with special features of the publication indicated. For example, a 255-page curriculum in music published in mimeographed form in 1936 is reported for Long Beach, California, as possessing the following special features: "Of-

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 57.
[5] Leary, Bernice E. *A Survey of Courses of Study and Other Curriculum Materials published since 1934.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 31, 1937. p. 185.

fers a flexible guide for teaching choral classes, music appreciation, theory, instrumental music, piano, voice class, applied music, and Christmas concerts. Presents practices and plans with suggested references for each."[6] Although the information presented in the bulletin regarding each contribution is brief, it is probably sufficient to indicate to the individual who is concerned with problems in the area under consideration whether or not he desires to secure the publication for examination and study. Thus, it is possible for administrative officers and teachers interested in curriculum improvement to familiarize themselves with contributions from other high schools at work.

The Office of Education further reports in another bulletin[7] that curriculum laboratories have been established in thirty-five institutions of higher learning for the purposes of collecting and assembling curriculum materials, for producing such materials, for advising and directing curriculum work, and for carrying on investigations pertaining to the curriculum. These laboratories contain numerous courses of study, special curriculum bulletins, textbooks, work books, units of work, tests, professional books, periodicals, and miscellaneous curriculum materials. Similar laboratories for curriculum study have been established by eleven state departments of education and by sixty-one city school systems. Hundreds of teachers, supervisors, administrators, and curriculum directors are reported as using the contributions assembled in these laboratories.

The Office of Education states that many people from the field come to Washington to use the curriculum materials which it has collected, that many others correspond with the personnel of the Office regarding developments in special phases of the curriculum, and that many more use the published list of available courses of study as a source of reference for ascertaining curriculum activities of different school systems. Virtually all those who consult the Office of Education are seeking guidance in the serious problem of curriculum construction and revision.[8]

Numerous secondary schools are also represented by staff members in the various curriculum workshops held under the auspices of the Committee on Evaluation of the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association and in the seminars on curriculum conducted in summer sessions of universities for the benefit of administrative officers and teachers from the field. While it is impossible to appraise the results of all these training activities for the personnel engaged in secondary education, the mere fact that so large a proportion of staff members are seeking specific training in the organization and use of instructional materials indicates that the high schools are attacking the problem of curriculum improvement on a wide front.

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[6] *Ibid.*, p. 87.

[7] Leary, Bernice E. *Curriculum Laboratories and Divisions.* United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1938. Pp. v+33.

[8] Leary, Bernice E., *op. cit.*, p. 1.

The specific areas of the high-school curriculum in which contributions have been reported and are available for distribution are: social studies, 114 contributions; English, 108; science, 60; mathematics, 48; business and commercial studies, 40; home economics and child care, 38; foreign languages, 34; physical education, 30; industrial arts, 26; health and hygiene, 17; art, 16; music, 7; and agriculture, 3. In addition to the contributions enumerated, one hundred thirteen bulletins[9] reporting general revisions of the high-school program of studies and ninety-two bulletins[10] treating special subjects, such as character education, safety, guidance, vocational education, and the like have been prepared and are available in printed or mimeographed form.

Any detailed discussion of contributions from individual schools is impossible in a discussion such as this. Persons interested in specific contributions should arrange to spend a few days, or better still, a summer quarter in some curriculum laboratory or workshop devoted to curriculum study. Since most contributions listed in the Bulletin of the Office of Education can be purchased, individuals desiring to secure copies for professional libraries in local schools or for personal use can obtain the materials desired by writing to the schools responsible for the contributions.

Critical study of a number of the most significant contributions to the high-school curriculum warrants the following general statements:

1. A considerable number of individual high schools scattered throughout the United States have already produced important contributions in various curriculum areas and many more are at work on curriculum projects.

2. State and county leaders in secondary education as well as those in city school systems are engaged in a systematic attempt to reorganize the high-school curriculum. Contributions made through these efforts involve participation by many schools and by many administrative officers and teachers. It therefore seems fair to state that the large majority of the secondary schools of the United States are being directly influenced by the contributions that are being made.

3. Analysis of the forewords and introductions to the published contributions reveals that the teachers in the schools involved have played a major role in the improvement of curriculum materials.

4. The large proportion of the contributions reflect the current point of view, namely, that the improvement of the high-school curriculum requires continuous adjustment to the needs of a changing social order. Many of the contributions are designated as temporary courses, tentative syllabi, and suggestive outlines.[11]

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[9] *Ibid.*, p. 5.
[10] *Ibid.*, p. 8.
[11] *Ibid.*, p. 15.

5. Experimentation and research in the field of the curriculum are being carried on in selected secondary schools, such as the group of thirty schools engaged in the eight-year experiment of the Progressive Education Association, in laboratory schools of departments of education in universities and teachers colleges, and in certain state departments of education and city school systems maintaining bureaus of educational research. Contributions emanating from these experimental schools as well as certain individual schools under creative leaders will no doubt represent the most extreme departures from tradition and custom in curriculum materials and in the reorganization of the program of studies.

6. General objectives are stated in a large percentage of the contributions listed by the Office of Education. Most of the objectives are expressed in terms of teaching purposes, although thirty-one per cent are stated in terms of pupil goals. Analysis of the contributions, however, reveals that the large majority involve modifications in the learner's attitudes and behavior, irrespective of the way the objectives are stated. Dr. Leary found that the acquisition of knowledge and skills in particular subject fields is the objective in sixty-eight per cent of the courses, the development of attitudes and appreciations in sixty-six per cent, the development of specific habits and abilities in forty-five per cent, the promotion of enriched living and social well-being in twenty-seven per cent, and the development of personality in twenty-one per cent.[12]

7. The curriculum is conceived as a series of courses, more or less isolated, and is organized by single subjects or groups of unrelated subjects in the large majority of the schools that have made curriculum contributions. However, a considerable number of the schools have correlated several subjects or have attempted an integration of all subjects. Some schools encourage correlation through the initiative of the teachers. In general, the contributions reveal a distinct trend in the direction of a curriculum that provides unified experiences.

8. The examination of a considerable number of the contributions to the secondary-school curriculum and the careful reading of the special features reported for the entire list prepared by the Office of Education should convince the most skeptical that the high schools are at work on the problem of improving curriculum materials. In the contributions already produced are to be found new materials of instruction, study aids, suggestions for creative activities, titles of available references, lists of appropriate visual materials, and the like to stimulate learning and to vitalize teaching. The conclusion is certainly warranted that many of these contributions compare favorably with the best achievements of leaders in social, economic, and political affairs.

[12] *Ibid.*, p. 19.

Whether or not these curriculum contributions which have been judged to be significant are more effective in preparing pupils for citizenship and in training them for social competence than the curriculum materials which they have displaced presents a task in evaluation that must ultimately be undertaken. On qualitative criteria of judgment many of the contributions appear to be decidedly superior to the courses supplanted.

The time at my disposal allows little more than an enumeration of the most significant contributions of the modern high school in areas other than the curriculum. Since it is generally admitted that the contributions have been less significant in the area of the curriculum than in other areas of secondary education, this discussion will be concluded with a brief statement regarding the contributions considered as most important.

1. It is generally recognized that the American secondary school has made a significant contribution in the organization and administration of those extra-class activities of pupils usually designated as the extra curriculum. This conclusion is strongly supported by the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education, which shows that there are relatively few high schools, regardless of the type of organization, which do not support programs of intramural and interscholastic athletics[13] as well as numerous non-athletic organizations, activities, and clubs.[14] These various activities make a strong appeal to pupils and when properly sponsored and articulated with curriculum activities, the vitalizing effect is reciprocal. The development of programs of extra-curriculum activities in high schools have usually resulted in an increase in holding power for pupils and in the enrichment of their social experiences. The evidence available warrants the statements that participation in such activities in high school, when not dominated by sponsors, is believed by those who have participated to develop desirable traits and characteristics in participants; that undesirable influences are considered slight as compared with the desirable influences; and that the experiences gained through participation in extra-curriculum activities are a necessary and normal aspect of young life.[15]

2. The management of the student personnel of the American high school is an outstanding achievement in educational administration. Formerly, discipline was a serious problem in secondary schools, even though the schools were small, and the students were highly selected and were supposed to be dominated by the life career motive. To-day, with a heterogeneous group of pupils many of whom are in school because of legal necessity, the old conditions with respect to discipline have largely disappeared. The explanation of the change is to be found partly in the pro-

[13]Brammell, P. Roy. *Intramural and Interscholastic Athletics*. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 27. United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 17, 1932.

[14]Reavis, William C., and Van Dyke, George E. *Nonathletic Extra-curriculum Activities*. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph No. 26. United States Office of Education Bulletin, No. 17, 1932.

[15]Reavis, W. C., and Van Dyke, G. E., *Ibid.*, pp. 149-174.

visions for individual guidance and partly in the opportunities offered for pupils to bear responsibility in proportion to their ability to exercise self-control.

It is now a most unusual occurrence for high-school pupils to become obstreperous and to defy school authority. Perhaps conditions such as those revealed in The Regents' Inquiry in New York State, in which test evidence indicated that "boys and girls on the point of leaving school . . . are reluctant to assume responsibility for civic coöperation, or to commit themselves to action which involves personal effort or sacrifice"[16] may be common in typical high schools. At least, in high schools under efficient leaders, such conditions, if found to exist, cannot be charged to lack of democratic practices in school administration. A recent inquiry[17] directed to eighty-one selected high schools in twenty-eight states revealed that seventy-two, or approximately ninety per cent, provided for pupil government or pupil participation in the administration and control of the school. If the recommendation for the improvement of the condition described in the Regents' Inquiry is correct, namely, that the straightest road to social consciousness is by way of pupil participation in school government—student councils, committees, and the like—then secondary schools appear to be moving in the right direction. The evidence on this point certainly refutes the very recent statement of a prominent columnist who ascribed to the soundness of the recommendation of the Regents' Inquiry, but insisted that the road to its realization would be a long one, because (quoting), "schools are models of the dictatorial system, and from earliest childhood we are conditioned to dictation . . . and in the heart of almost every man is a taste of tyranny."[18]

My contention is that our pace-setting secondary schools, at least, if not a very substantial proportion of all high schools, have made a significant contribution in the organization of pupils for self-government and in the cultivation of democratic participation in school control.

3. Closely related to the contribution of the modern secondary school in personnel management is that of pupil guidance. In this area great progress has been made in recent years. Most schools have some kind of guidance program, designed to assist pupils in securing fruitful information regarding future education and life pursuits. Furthermore, most schools attempt something in the way of advisement and adjustment. The quality of guidance services naturally rate from superior to unsatisfactory, depending on the character of the school and its leadership. But considering schools, by and large, a strong claim can be made in behalf of guidance. It has become a familiar word to the classroom teacher as well as to administrative officers. The responsibility for the service has

[16]Spaulding, Francis T. *High School and Life*, p. 4. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938.
[17]Reavis, William C. Unpublished data, April, 1937.
[18]O'Brien, Howard Vincent, *The Chicago Daily News*, February 22, 1939.

led to the appointment of special guidance officers and the organization of the teaching and administrative personnel to coöperate effectively in the guidance program.

The result is that to-day comparatively few pupils pass from the last grade of the elementary unit to the first grade of the secondary unit without receiving information regarding high-school offerings and opportunities, and without the privilege of advisement when consultation is desired. Further information and advisement are generally provided as the pupils pass from grade to grade and from high school into college or into life pursuits. That the advice varies in quality with the wisdom and insight of the persons who provide the service is not a question of argument and dispute but rather a matter of disappointment and regret. The mere fact that the school undertakes to serve the individual and that the entire teaching and administrative personnel are rapidly undergoing training in this important responsibility is a contribution of significance not only in secondary education, but of importance to the elementary school and college as well.

4. Other areas in which significant contributions have been made by a much smaller number of schools than in those areas already discussed are: (a) the development of cumulative records and reports for use in pupil accounting; (b) the recognition of individual differences and the modification of instructional materials and methods to meet individual needs; (c) the establishment of closer relations between school and supporting community; and (d) the raising of the standards of recreation in school and community and the improvement of the uses made of leisure time.

Evidence of contributions by numerous individual schools in one or more of the areas specified can be supplied to show that the progress of individual schools is always greatly in advance of the mass. This fact should give the leaders in secondary education great concern, but it need not make them despondent. If even the contributions of our pace-setting schools could be brought to the attention of the mass of administrative officers and teachers, the net result would be a challenge to action that would find its expression in a concerted attack on many of the baffling problems now retarding the improvement of secondary education.

After a much-needed intermission for ventilation, the presiding officer introduced Dr. Edgar G. Johnston, Principal of University High School, Ann Arbor, Michigan, who read his paper.

CONTRIBUTIONS FROM THE COOPERATIVE STUDY OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL STANDARDS

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

University of Michigan; Field Representative, Coöperative Study

I believe it is the considered conviction of those who have worked intimately with secondary schools—or for that matter with any other human institution—that improvement comes, not from imposition or regimentation from without, but rather from increased vision and insight on the part of those responsible for the program. The contribution of the Coöperative Study of Secondary-School Standards is to be judged largely from the extent to which it has furnished stimulus to self-study and enrichment of pupil experience for those schools which have made use of its materials and its technique. Briefly, the procedure of the Study may be characterized as an intensive self-survey by a school, supplemented by an impartial review by an objective but sympathetic visiting committee.

I can best illustrate its procedure by showing you with the aid of slides some of the materials with which the Study works and the nature of the information and the coöperating school is enabled to secure about itself. I am taking it for granted that through the published information about the Study and Dr. Eells' presentation to this group last year you are familiar in a general way with the history and development of the Study up to the current year.

You will remember that the General Committee of the Coöperative Study set itself the task of securing answers to four fundamental questions:

1. What are the characteristics of a good secondary school?
2. What practicable means and methods may be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of its objectives?
3. By what means and processes does a good school develop into a better one?
4. How can regional associations stimulate secondary schools to continuous growth?

The chief instrument for enabling a school to study its own procedures is the set of *Evaluative Criteria,* which, in its 1938 edition, includes eleven sections and comprises a total of 152 pages of analytic data.

EVALUATIVE CRITERIA

Outline of Contents

Basic Information

B. Philosophy and Objectives

C. Pupil Population and School Community

Educational Program

D. Curriculum and Courses of Study
E. Pupil Activity Program
F. Library Service
G. Guidance Service
H. Instruction
I. Outcomes

Staff, Plant, Administration

J. School Staff
K. School Plant
L. School Administration

It will be noted that the first two sections, referred to as Basic Information, involve the philosophy of the school—what it as a school conceives to be its function—and the characteristics of the pupils who constitute its student body and of the community it serves. These two sections serve as a sort of "frame of reference" against which the school's performance in the other areas is to be judged. It is obvious that the problems of a small rural high school differ markedly from those of a secondary school in a metropolitan community or of a private school with the shadow of College Boards hanging over its head. It is the conviction of those in charge of the Coöperative Study that an instrument designed to assist in solution of those problems should be sufficiently flexible to be adapted to various conditions and to take into account varying philosophies and community situations.

The other sections provide for a detailed review of the various factors which go into the making of a good school. It will be noted that major emphasis is placed on the different phases of the educational programs. Too frequently school excellence has been determined in terms of material equipment and administrative efficiency.

The technique of the Study can best be shown by consideration of a sample portion of one of the component sections.

THE SCHOOL ASSEMBLY

CHECKLIST

(+) 1. School assembly programs are in large part given by pupils and by pupil organizations with pupils presiding.
(O) 2. Assembly programs are planned so as to secure participation and contributions of many, not simply of the few.
(—) 3. Assembly programs have definite entertainment, instructional, cultural, and inspirational values.
(+) 4. Assembly programs are free from coarse and objectionable elements.
(+) 5. Assembly programs are characterized by a variety of presentation, such as music, speaking, dramatization, demonstration, and exhibits.
(—) 6. Assembly programs stimulate the creative ability of pupils by encouraging them to write and produce plays or other performances, design scenery and costumes, devise unusual exhibitions and entertainments, etc.

(O) 7. Correct audience habits are developed—no late-comers or early-leavers; reasonable applause, courteous attention to performers; no disturbances.
( ) 8.
( ) 9.

Number of school assemblies per year, 15.
Length of assembly period, 30 minutes.

EVALUATIONS

(4) *w. How adequate are the provisions for attaining conditions or results such as the above?*
(3) *x. How effectively are these conditions or results attained?*
(2) *y. How actively and extensively do pupils participate in the presentation of programs?*
(3) *z. Evaluate the quality of four successive assembly programs.*

Comments:

$$\text{Average Evaluation} = \frac{12}{4} = 3.0$$

Figure I.

Figure I presents a part of one page of one section—that dealing with Pupil Activities. You will observe that there are two distinct features of the survey presented here—check list items and evaluations. The items of the check list present what are generally accepted as sound principles applicable to the conduct of school assemblies. Through use of the symbols, "+," "—," and "O," the school presents its judgment as to the degree of attainment of these provisions or conditions in its own situation. It is encouraged under Comments and through presentation of supplementary materials to indicate outstanding achievements, peculiar conditions, modifying factors, points of disagreement with the principles stated—anything which may contribute to a more adequate picture of the school's performance in this field.

The school then presents under Evaluations its estimate of the success of its performance in the light of this review. The symbols used here range from "5," representing outstanding achievement, to "1," which indicates little or no success in the phase under consideration.

Obviously, the intensive self-analysis provided by the study of its assembly procedures enables the school both to appraise more effectively its achievements in this field, and to plan intelligently for improvement. Similar analyses are made for the other sections of the *Evaluative Criteria* which I described to you earlier. The school is urged to involve all members of its staff in some phase of the evaluation, and the experience of those of us who have been working with the Study this year has been that one result of participation by a school has been an increased interest of teachers in the entire school program.

If the school does no more than to apply these criteria to its own program as conscientiously and objectively as it can, the results should be extremely valuable. The technique of the Coöperative Study, however, provides two further steps which increase the validity of the analysis. The first is the review by a visiting committee. This reviewing board, appointed

ordinarily by the state committee of the regional accrediting association, includes in its membership active administrators of other secondary schools as well as representatives of state departments of education and of higher institutions in the area. It spends sufficient time in the school—ordinarily from two days to a week, depending on the size of the school—to enable it to become thoroughly familiar with the procedures and instruction of the school. I shall not go into detail in description of the procedures of such a committee. You will find them fully discussed in Chapter VII of the monograph, *How to Evaluate a Secondary School.** It may be observed that this review gives the school the benefit of the judgment of "outsiders" and serves the purpose of correcting errors of judgment due to complacency or an inadequate standard of comparison.

A further advantage comes to the school in the comparison of its effectiveness in the various areas included in the *Evaluative Criteria* with typical practice, through computation of scores and their representation on Educational Thermometers. I shall not go into the procedures used in developing these thermometers, since that has been exhaustively described in articles in various publications and in the monograph to which I referred earlier.** I do wish to illustrate briefly the type of report which comes back to the school and the use which may be made of it for improvement of the program.

A sample thermometer is shown in Figure II (see p. 42, BULLETIN 73 of the Department of Secondary-School Principals), in this case representing the number of books in the library. You will observe that it is a percentile scale, the graduations on the left side of the scale showing the level reached by the designated proportion of the schools included, while on the right are shown the numbers of volumes corresponding to these levels. You will also note that norms are indicated, showing the average score for schools grouped according to regions and other bases of classification. In all, one hundred such thermometers are given, enabling a school to compare itself with typical procedure in many details for each section of the *Evaluative Criteria.*

The significance of these thermometers to a school may best be shown by presenting sample pages of the reports sent back to an actual school, in this case the median school—that one whose performance was excelled by as many schools as were inferior to it.

The important thing in Figure III is the profile—the designation of strong and weak points. It should be a matter of concern to this school that in curriculum it reached only the 11th percentile, that guidance was at the 34th, instruction at the 30th, and outcomes at the 37th. The fact that it has an average plant and distinctly superior staff and library sug-

*Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, *How to Evaluate a Secondary School.* Washington, D. C., 1938. Pp. 55-62.

**Ibid.*, Chapters V, IX, X, XI.

gest that it is certainly not getting adequate returns from its "capital." A study of the check list items which were scored as unsatisfactory in the evaluation of the school should enable it to direct its energies toward the improvement of those areas which rank low.

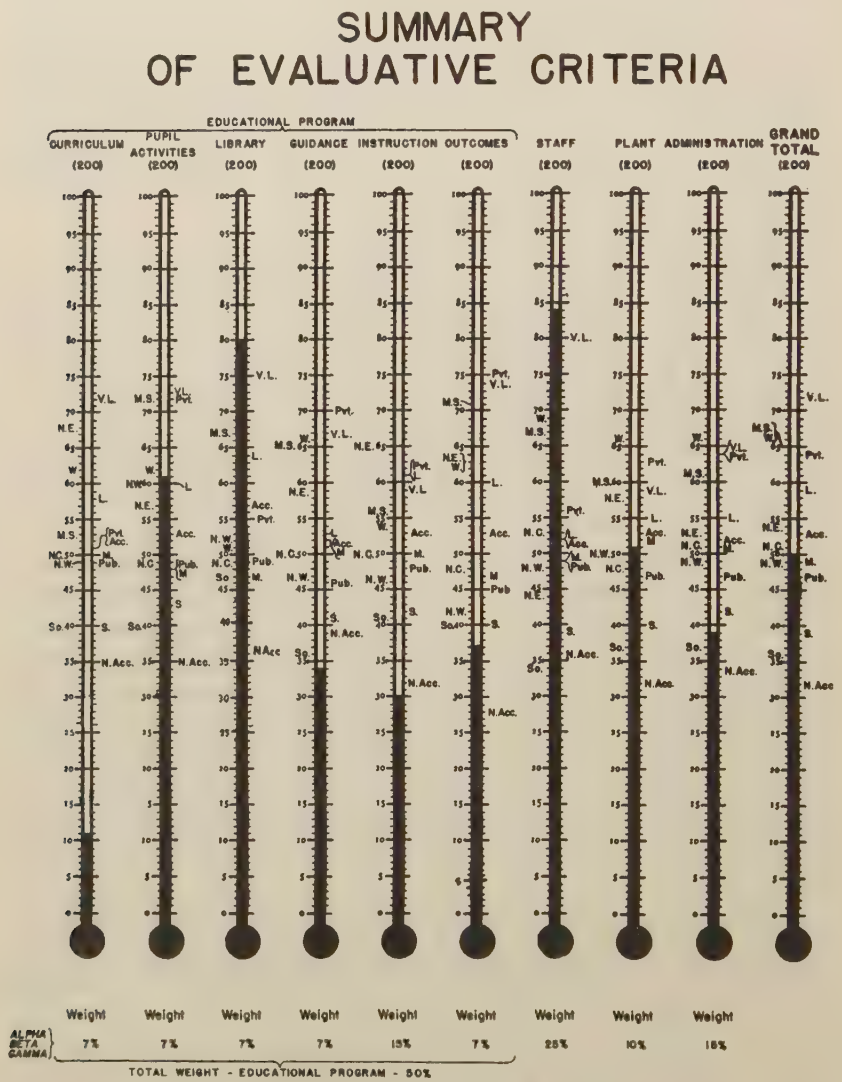

Figure III.

The significance of this "profile" is shown more clearly as we consider the showing in detail in one of the areas, here pupil activities.

It will be noted from Figure IV that while the showing on the area as a whole is above average, certain parts of the program—home rooms, assemblies, and administration of finances—are distinctly inferior. The

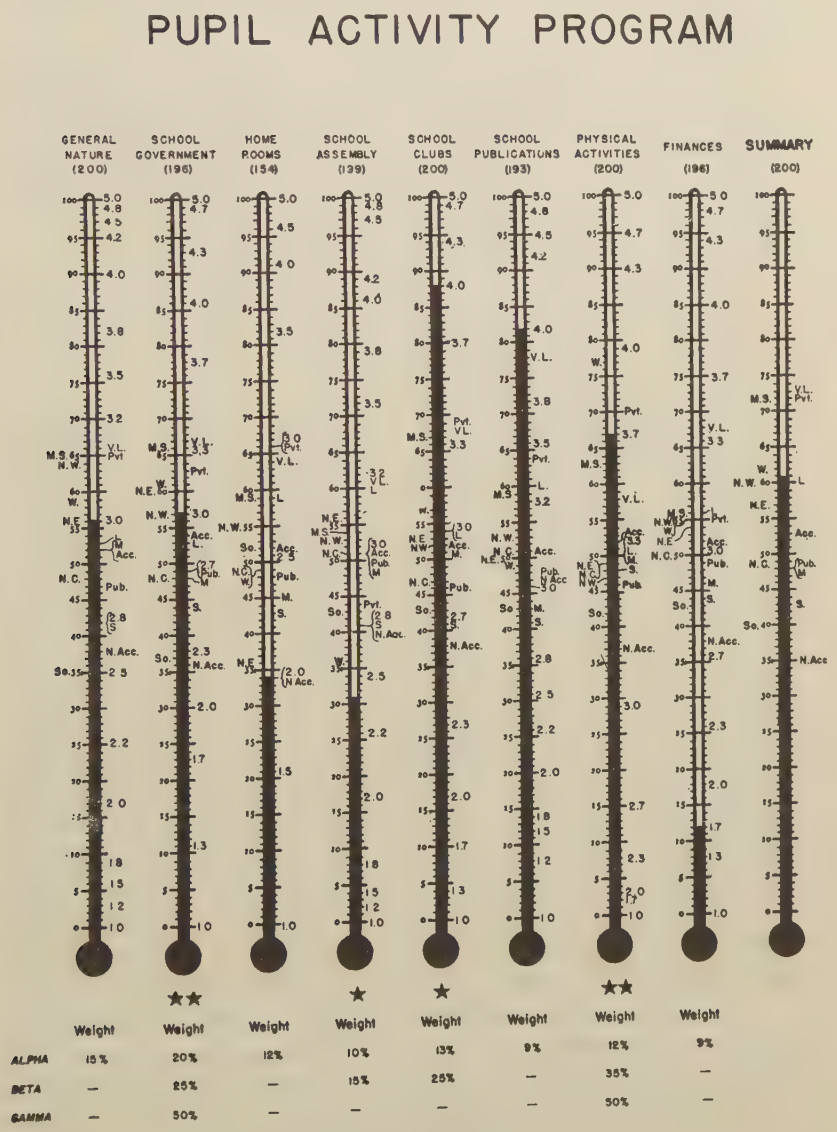

Figure IV.

staff should give serious attention to the improvement of these phases of its program, while maintaining its clubs and publications at the high level indicated. Time precludes going into further detail in regard to the use of these "Educational Temperatures." It should be evident that they serve to provide the school with a series of yardsticks by which its performance may be judged.

The title assigned to me for this afternoon's session was "Significant Contributions to Secondary-School Improvement from the Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards." I trust that the illustrations drawn from the materials provided by the Study have served in some measure to show what those contributions are. If I may be permitted to summarize them briefly, I should say that there seem to me to be three chief contributions from the Coöperative Study materials and technique:

In the first place it stimulates the school to an intensive study of its own program and problems. I can think of no other approach from which any intelligent efforts at improvement can take their beginning.

The second contribution of the Coöperative Study is a new relationship in supervision. Under this plan, the supervising agency—state department, higher institution, or accrediting association—enters the picture not as an *ex officio* judge with authority to hand down an opinion as to what is wrong with the school, but as a friendly helper prepared to assist the school to a more accurate evaluation of itself. It is significant that while the Study was initiated in an effort to provide a more valid basis of accreditation, the emphasis on the part of those who have made most effective use of its methods has shifted from accreditation to stimulation and assistance.

Finally, and a point of no small significance, it places the responsibility for improvement of secondary education where, in my judgment, it belongs, on the shoulders of the responsible leaders of our secondary schools. The school which has made a careful evaluation of its own program and is planning improvements in the light of that study will exert an influence for more functional education in its area. The majority of the members of reviewing committees are drawn from active administrators of other schools in the locality. The day of college domination of the high school has passed. Increasingly its course of development will be determined by teachers and principals of American high schools aware of the problems facing the school and grappling at first hand with their solution. "Standards for secondary schools" are in the hands of this group. It is in this field that the National Department of Secondary-School Principals appropriately aspires to leadership. It cannot afford to overlook the assistance to that effort which may be found in intelligent use of the materials and methods provided by the Coöperative Study of Secondary School Standards.

Discussion followed.

JUNIOR COLLEGE DIVISION

The Junior-College Division was held in the Ball Room Annex of the Public Auditorium with the theme of The Junior College Serving Its Sectional Needs.

Mr. M. G. Jones, Principal of Union High School, Huntington Beach, California, and Member of the Executive Committee of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, introduced the program by presenting Mr. J. L. McCaskill, Principal of Senior High School and Junior College of Meridian, Mississippi, who read his paper, Problems in Evolving a Junior-College Curriculum to Meet Community Needs.

JUNIOR COLLEGE DIVISION
PROBLEMS IN EVOLVING A JUNIOR COLLEGE CURRICULUM TO MEET COMMUNITY NEEDS

J. L. McCASKILL
Principal of Senior High School and Junior College, Meridian, Mississippi

The change from the six-three-three to the six-four-four plan of school organization in Meridian, Mississippi, is so recent that no measurable results that are defensible can be reported. The reasons for the decision to change to the six-four-four plan, the procedure that was used in an attempt to determine the educational needs of the community, and the first steps that were taken in instituting the change may be of value especially to those of you who may contemplate a similar change in organization.

The Meridian school system serves a district that is seventy-two square miles in area and has a population of approximately fifty thousand people. About sixty-five per cent of the population is American-born white, thirty-five per cent negro, and less than one per cent foreign born. The system has separate schools for whites and colored, and my discussion will deal entirely with the white schools. The community is primarily an industrial one. The enrollment in the Senior High School division at the beginning of the reorganization was approximately eight hundred.

The decision to change the plan of organization of the school system from the six-three-three to the six-four-four was made by the community after the presentation of the following facts:

1. That the geographical location of Meridian with reference to higher educational institutions was such that opportunity for education beyond high school was naturally limited. The nearest four-year college was a hundred miles away.

2. That changing economic conditions were making employment for high-school graduates extremely difficult.

3. That an increasing number of high-school graduates were returning yearly to the Senior High School for "post-graduate" courses.

4. That the large high-school enrollment prevented curriculum adjustment to meet the needs of these students.

5. That congestion in the senior high school necessitated expansion of facilities to meet adequately community needs.

6. That the addition of the thirteenth and fourteenth grades to the system would be most economical through the change to the six-four-four plan of organization.

7. That the thirteenth and fourteenth grades are a part of secondary education and not a two-year unit of the college or university.

A bond issue to provide funds for the erection of buildings for the upper four-year unit was passed by a large majority and simultaneously a survey was begun to attempt to determine educational needs in the community that were not being met by the school system. The information sought through means of the survey was based on the areas of living as suggested by the Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction and was roughly classified under three headings:

1. What are the needs for training for the physical welfare of the young people of the community?

2. What are the needs for training for the social welfare of the young people of the community?

3. What are the needs for the cultural training of young people of the community?

Every available means was used to secure information. A social and industrial survey by the local Chamber of Commerce provided valuable data. By means of questionnaires and personal interview information was secured from the following groups:

1. Members of civic service clubs
2. Members of women's clubs
3. Members of labor unions
4. Representative groups of school patrons
5. All students enrolled in senior high school
6. Representative groups of junior high-school students.

A census was taken of all graduates for the previous years who had not attended college. Much information was collected and compiled by members of English and social-studies classes under the direction of teachers. Both students and faculty members served on the committees that assembled the data. The faculty was already coöperating in the Mississippi Program for the Improvement of Instruction. This fact aided in the recognition of implications that would otherwise have been lost. All available

literature was examined and apparently every source explored. I might mention here that much aid was secured from the literature published by the Pasadena, California, school system.

A summary of the conclusions follows:

1. That the Senior High School as organized was not meeting the educational needs of the community adequately.

2. That forces which were making changes in the Senior High School curriculum necessary were also factors influencing the upward extension to include the junior college years.

3. That the junior college extension should not be an imitation of the lower division of the university, but that it must be built upon the curriculum implications of the secondary school with emphasis upon the fact that it was a part of secondary education.

4. That existing accreditment requirements would necessitate a slow departure from traditional practices.

5. That popular demand would require opportunity for the education of those students who would wish to transfer to a higher institution, after junior college graduation, without loss of college credit.

6. That the greatest service which the junior college could render to the community would be to those students who could not attend any other institution after graduation from high school or junior college.

7. That the aim of the reorganization should be to make the upper four-year division a unit with emphasis upon the eradication of the traditional division line between high school and college.

8. That the curriculum should be made as vital and functional as possible.

9. That guidance as it relates to all life activities should begin early as an integral part of the curriculum and continue through the junior college and into the student's life in the community.

10. That the community needed opportunity for education of adults not only just through adult courses, but also through activities that would provide centers of interest which were lacking in the community.

11. That objectives of existing activities should be examined and outcomes evaluated in terms of these objectives with consequent changes made where outcomes and objectives were not compatible.

12. That additions to the curriculum should be based upon carefully considered objectives.

13. That the change in organization could not be made through the addition of grades and courses but only by the gradual development of a

sequential curriculum that would meet the needs of the community more adequately.

14. That the development of the curriculum should be slow and continuous and would depend upon a sympathetic understanding of the aims and purposes by the entire faculty with a willingness to seek training both in and out of service that would assure continuous growth to the project.

Each conclusion is in itself a problem. Several of these problems are no nearer solution than at the beginning of the experiment three years ago. Following is a brief description of curriculum organization as it is in practice or planned for the future. It must necessarily begin with the junior high school because of the conception of the junior college as an upward extension of secondary education.

The junior high-school curriculum is organized with the purpose of providing knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of areas of life rather than the acquisition of skills. Exploratory experiences are provided which aim to determine interests, aptitudes, and needs.

The senior high-school curriculum is divided roughly into the college preparatory curriculum with provision to permit preparation to meet specific college entrance requirements on completion of high school, and the non-college curriculum. The college preparatory courses must of necessity be rather traditional in nature, but all of the curriculum experiences are by no means confined to these courses. The aim in the non-college curriculum is to shift gradually the skill training upward to make general education more complete before the skill training is begun. It is the total development of the child that is sought rather than his specialized training. Means through which this aim is to be accomplished are:

1. Addition of survey and orientation courses.
2. Increased use of movie, radio, sound recording, and other aids.
3. The merging of all so-called "extra-curriculum activities" with the curriculum.
4. Constant in-service training of teachers.
5. Provision of opportunity, through committees, for students themselves to have a part in the planning of the curriculum.

The college preparatory courses in the junior college closely parallel the lower division courses in the arts and science division at the State university. No attempt is made to offer college preparatory courses other than those of a general educational nature. Since it is not the function of this junior college to attempt pre-professional training, no plans have been made to extend the college courses to specialized fields. Only those college preparatory students who need to prolong home influences or who can

economize both in time and money are encouraged to enroll in the junior college after graduation from high school.

Terminal courses in the junior college are provided in home-making, stenography, salesmanship, bookkeeping, accounting, commercial art, design, drafting, vocal and instrumental music, journalism, and recreational work. Other terminal courses are being added as rapidly as needs appear and facilities permit. Many students are employed part-time in the community. Coördination of their employment with school work is a part of the regular school service.

In both preparatory and terminal education an attempt is made to continue the training as a definite part of the upper secondary level. It is believed that there must be a continuity between the eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades, with as little break between the twelfth and thirteenth grades as possible. It is hoped that this will be partially accomplished by:

1. Orientation of the eleventh grade students to the new situation.

2. Having all teachers teach courses in both senior high school and junior college.

3. Projecting the college attitude downward into the eleventh and twelfth grades, and the high-school attitude upward into the thirteenth and fourteenth grades. This necessitates the providing of more freedom for high-school students and the increasing of their responsibility together with a closer guidance for both high-school and junior-college students.

4. Elimination of the traditional high-school graduation.

5. Creating a unity of feeling in the student body through a common program of athletic and other activities. This includes a carefully planned program of recreational activities in which both boys and girls are encouraged to participate.

Little has been planned or accomplished in adult education in the junior college. Night school classes which were in operation before the change in organization have been continued but are not distinctly a part of the junior college. Some adults are enrolled in regular courses such as, art, design, home-making, music, and business training. Participation in the recreational program and use of club rooms, gymnasium, and other such facilities is permitted. This year the community lyceum program is a joint undertaking of the junior college and the local music association. Expansion in adult education will probably come only after the community has become accustomed to the new school organization.

HOW ONE JUNIOR COLLEGE SERVES ITS COMMUNITY

BYRON S. HOLLINSHEAD

President, Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La Plume, Pennsylvania

It is quite significant, I think, that the most powerful educational organization in America, the National Education Association, should be devoting part of its program this year to a discussion of the junior college. While I do not know precisely what motivated your steering committee to decide on a section about the junior college, I believe it was because your leaders see the junior college movement as a logical development of the American educational system, which is sure to play an increasingly important role in our community life.

Since there are a great many different kinds of junior colleges, ranging from the old type proprietary finishing school for girls to public institutions administered as a part of the public high-school system, I wish to limit myself in this paper to a discussion of one type, which for lack of a better name, I will call the community junior college.

This type of institution may be described as organized primarily to serve one certain geographical area. It may be public or private, but it is tax-exempt and non-profit-making, and derives its main support either from public or philanthropic sources. Its services are available to all citizens who can profit from them and its program is designed to minister to general community needs rather than to the needs of a certain group.

The institution with which I am associated, Scranton-Keystone Junior College, is of this type. Very early in its development, certain objectives were set up for it to follow. These objectives were broad in scope and designed to encompass a variety of services which would be valuable to its constituency.

First, it should provide educational, recreational, and vocational opportunities for the young people of its community.

Second, it should serve to promote a greater social and civic intelligence in the community.

Third, it should provide opportunities for increased adult education.

Fourth, the cultural facilities of the institution should be placed at the disposal of the community.

Fifth, the work of the institution should be closely integrated with the work of the high school and the work of other community institutions.

Given the objectives just mentioned, the question of how they are to be carried out immediately arises. In the first place it is necessary in any community program to have a fairly large group of individuals—members of the community—who will constitute themselves as willing eyes and ears

to keep the college informed of community developments and community needs, and to inform the community, also, of what the college has to offer.

These individuals may be divided into professional committees serving in an advisory capacity. Their functions should be to allow the institution to permeate the life of the community with its educational work. Members of the community should be brought in to address various groups of the student body. Members of the student body should visit community institutions. The advisory committees should serve students in a guidance capacity in making vocational choices. Many other functions are served by these committees, the main object of which is to provide an integration between community life and the academic life of the college.

Next, the college should offer a variety of adult education programs. These services may take several forms: individual lectures on educational subjects to adult groups; lecture series given in a certain subject field over an extensive period of time; lectures and educational presentations at the college open to the general public; extension services which may use the faculty in an advisory capacity; and home study programs.

Since the college is interested in ministering to community needs, an important part of its work will serve an industrial purpose. It will make studies indicating employment and industrial needs, and will try to devise curricula to meet these needs. It will offer testing services for its students which attempt to indicate student aptitudes for a variety of industrial pursuits. This testing may extend down into the secondary schools in order to best promote the potentialities of young people of the community.

A vital part of this service, it seems to me, is to have the college so organized that it is equipped to further the education of the brilliant but impecunious. By saving these prospective leaders, the community college renders one of its most useful community services. Most of you are doubtless familiar with the study made by the American Youth Commission which indicated, among other things, that the college selective process did not work with any high degree of accuracy. "While 105 out of each 1,000 high school graduates went on to college and successfully completed the first two years, there were 174 out of each 1,000 who did not go to college, usually because they were financially unable to do so. *The 174 who did not go to college were found to have mental abilities that promised as high a degree of scholastic success as the 105 who did.*"[1]

To serve the bright but needy, the college should have available a number of scholarships and work allotments to enable this group to aid itself while living at home. The saving made by attending a local institution the first two years may enable some students to go on for a baccalaureate degree. For others terminal courses should be devised. Wherever pos-

[1]Howard M. Bell: *Youth Tell Their Story*, Page 96. Prepared by the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. 1938.

sible brilliant students should be urged to go on with their academic work and the junior college should assist them in getting aid wherever possible.

For the many who cannot go on, two-year terminal courses should be provided. These courses serve not only the group who cannot afford further training, but also serve the group who do not wish to spend a longer time in purely academic work. Courses designed to meet the needs of this group are usually referred to as semi-professional. These courses should be designed to train for real rather than hoped-for industrial and professional needs.

In devising two-year courses especially designed to meet community needs, I do not believe there is any set formula which would apply in every case. However, the procedure we have followed is approximately as follows: A need for a certain type of curriculum has been expressed by some professional group. A committee of this professional group has been appointed to assist the college in devising a curriculum to meet the need. The qualifications which are necessary for success in the field have been drawn up by practitioners in the field. A meeting has been arranged between the professional or community group and the teaching faculty. The curriculum has been drawn up by the educational group in the light of the specifications outlined by the community committee. The curriculum is then tested by practice employment and by checking the work of graduates who have been placed. Lastly, the curriculum should be revised constantly as changes in the profession occur and as modifications are suggested by experience.

At the present time we are offering five terminal courses: the general business course, the secretarial course, the medical secretarial course, the industrial course for engineers, and the chemical course for engineers. We are expecting to add a two-year course in home economics next year. This new terminal course will be designed to train girls for positions in hotels, department stores, restaurants, and similar service institutions, as well as to train for the career of marriage.

The fundamental philosophy back of these semi-professional courses is perhaps best expressed in the Twenty-Ninth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching which states: [The junior college] "is philosophically more mature than either university or specialized college and can have no ambitions in their direction. Fundamentally its impulses are not upward toward some institution thought to be 'higher,' but outward into the problems and needs of its supporting group in so far as education can administer to these needs and help to solve these problems."[2]

[2]The Twenty-Ninth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1934, Page 34.

If we were to state the objectives we were trying to accomplish with terminal students, they would probably differ considerably from the objectives of a four-year college or university. More than anything else, I believe, we are trying to develop social consciousness and a sense of social responsibility. We are trying to make good citizens not only in the narrow political sense but in manners, attitudes, habits, and general coöperativeness. Second, we try to give students a knowledge of the great in art and literature to benefit them vocationally, as well as avocationally. Third, we try to give them a sufficient knowledge of the findings of science to inform them of the probable directions in which we shall be forced to move economically, politically, and socially because of improved technological methods. Fourth, we try to provide students with sufficient vocational knowledge and information to allow them to re-enter the community and earn an honorable living.

The most important factor in the success of any community college program is in attracting the right kind of faculty. Teaching at the junior college level is exceedingly difficult. The teacher must not be the kind of university specialist who cannot see over the walls of his own special field. He must give the student a general view and understanding of the broad aspects of his field, for half his students will terminate their formal education in the junior college.

On the other hand, he must give enough exact knowledge to meet the prerequisites of Professor X's course at the university, or, even worse, of different professors' courses at different universities. This task is a larger one than faces the university instructor who is satisfied to make his course simply a steppingstone to another which is to follow. The biology instructor, for example, must not only give his students the vocabulary and laboratory technique of the first course in biology, but he must also give the student a satisfactory understanding of the nature of man. That is, the course must be given both as a steppingstone to courses to follow and as an end in itself.

The instructor must also be a superlative guidance officer. He may not use the force-discipline of the secondary school; he must not allow the laxness of the university guidance system. He tries to meet the transitional and later adolescent problems of his students by an exercise of personality, which means that to succeed he must be an unusual person.

A part of our difficulty in instruction in higher education is probably caused by our own attitude. This attitude goes back to the days of the medieval monasteries when learning was regarded as property to be possessed by a small group who had no interest in placing the advantages of learning at the disposal of the general public. It is still the fashion in some colleges and universities to sneer at attempts to familiarize the general

populace with the work of the universities, despite the recognition that we must bridge the gap between scientific knowledge and popular prejudice.

We cannot bridge the gap by formalizing education behind high walls. The fact that we have five states in our union which prohibit the teaching of biology in a scientific fashion and twenty-six states which require teachers to subscribe to loyalty oaths emphasizes the need for higher education to make itself not only intelligible but useful to the general population.

We have only to look at what has happened to higher education in Germany, Italy, and Japan to see what may happen to our colleges and universities if the general public is not in complete sympathy with their aims and purposes.

When, therefore, we consider the famous dictum of Thomas Jefferson that democracy will be safe only so long as there is widespread opportunity for education, we who are in higher education might well consider the reverse of Jefferson's statement, which would be something like this: Education is safe in a democracy only as long as it is democratized.

It would require a dull imagination, indeed, to be unable to see the possibilities for the kind of institution I have described. Such an institution can lift the whole community culturally, industrially, and socially. It can make itself the center for the spiritual and mental activities which give purpose to life and zest to existence. Such an institution need not worry about community support, for, to the extent that it ministers to the community needs I have described, its community will nurture and sustain it.

MEETING THE JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS' NEEDS

LOUIS E. PLUMMER

Superintendent of Union High School and Junior College, Fullerton, California

"The stone which the builders refused has become the head stone of the corner."—Psalms 118:22.

It has been the experience of many a manufacturer that the waste from his factory contained by-products the profits from which meant the difference between success and failure for him. So it has been with the junior college. Early pronouncements looking to the establishment of such institutions indicate the large place the preparatory function assumed, the relative insignificance of other functions. President Harper, of Chicago, in 1900 in speaking of institutions in which lower division work would be done said,

> . . . Another group of these small institutions will come to be known as junior colleges. I use the name "junior college," for lack of a better term, to cover the work of the freshman and sophomore years. . .[1]

Dr. Edmund J. James, president of the University of Illinois, stated in his inaugural address in 1905,

> My own idea is that the university ought not to be engaged in secondary work at all, and by secondary work I mean work which is necessary as a preliminary preparation for the pursuit of special professional, that is, scientific study. Consequently, our secondary schools, our high schools, and our colleges will be expected to take more and more of the work which is done in the lower classes of the different departments of the university as at present constituted. . . .[2]

Dr. Jordon, of Stanford, wrote in 1913 in a letter to Superintendent McLane, of Fresno State Teachers College, Fresno, California,

> I am looking forward, as you know, to the time when the large high schools of the state, in conjunction with the small colleges, will relieve the two great universities from the expense and from the necessity of giving instruction of the first two university years. . . .[3]

Examples of such thinking might be multiplied without number.

That legislators had the same conception of the primary function of the junior college is shown by a typical enactment. The first California enabling act for junior colleges provided that

> The board of trustees of any . . . high school may prescribe post-graduate courses of study for the graduates of such high school . . . which courses of study shall approximate the studies prescribed in the first two years of university courses.[4]

This conception of the primary function of the junior college was a natural outgrowth of university needs.

In a short time after the establishment of our first public junior colleges interested patrons as well as the universities realized that the preparatory function was not so important as at first thought; indeed it might not be even the primary function of a junior college. The University of California in its *Junior College Bulletin* of 1915 said,

> It is coming to be generally understood that the junior college cannot serve its complex purpose if it make preparation for the university its primary object. . . . The junior college will function adequately only if its first concern is with those who will go no farther, if it meets local needs efficiently, if it turns many away from the university into vocations for which training has not hitherto been afforded by our school system.[5]

Dr. R. J. Leonard, of University of California, and later of Teachers College, Columbia, said at a meeting of the American Association of

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[1] Walter Crosby Eells, *The Junior College* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company), p. 60.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 46.
[3] William M. Proctor, *The Junior College* (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1927), p. 13.
[4] Eells, *op. cit.*, p. 89.
[5] Proctor, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

Junior Colleges in 1925, "And, in so far as junior colleges concern themselves with occupational education, their efforts will be confined to the middle level and, in like manner, this will be their permanent field."[6]

From this point we could go on to the vocational enthusiasts who would make little place in a junior college for subjects that do not contribute directly to vocational education.

To-day we find no battle line drawn between those who advocate the preparatory function of the junior college and those who support the terminal function. Both functions are quite generally recognized as legitimate fields for junior-college effort. The fight centers rather on the direction this terminal function will take. Shall the work be of a general nature in order that pupils may more readily transfer from one occupation to another or shall it be quite specific? Is there a compromise position that can be established by recognizing and preparing for families of occupations or should junior-college education be even more specific, a preparation for a particular occupation?

My task is that of telling you what is being done in a particular college. In Fullerton we are certain we have not found the ultimate curricula or course content we wish to offer. We are feeling our way with the thought of modifying administration, offerings, or classroom procedure as experience shows us the way. We are also certain we cannot find a solution for the college problems of any other community. If what we are doing offers a suggestion that helps another reach a solution or stimulates thought along another line of effort, the purpose of my talk will have been accomplished.

Having decided to try certain experiments in the Fullerton Junior College, it ceases, for the time being, to be a debatable question whether vocational education shall be specific or general. The problem is not solved; we hope to reach the answer through experience rather than through philosophy.

The Fullerton Junior College has established technical trades curricula in aeronautics, Diesel engines, machine shop, mill and cabinet work, printing, and ornamental iron work. The following outlines, copy of which has been furnished to you, show the requirements for each curriculum. In each of these curricula laboratory work in the trade itself constitutes the core or major. Related subjects complete the curricula and serve to reduce the specialization.

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[6] *Ibid.*, p. 20.

AERONAUTICS

FIRST YEAR	UNITS	
Health Science	2	
American Institutions 15		2
Mathematics 50A-50B	3	3
Machine Shop 16A	2	
Airplane Materials 56A	1	
Machine Drawing 6 (7 hrs.)		3
Orientation 51	1	
English & Correspondence 51		3
Aeronautics Lab. 52A-52B	2	2
Machine Draft. Pract. 75	2	
Radio 70A	3	
Industrial Science 82		3
Physical Education	½	½

SECOND YEAR	UNITS	
Aerodynamics 50A	10	
Airplane Structure 51A		6
Aeronaut. Draft. 55A-55B	4	2
Met. & Navigation 54A		6
Fund. of Business 54	2	
Simple Accounting 65		2
Physical Education	½	½

DIESEL ENGINES

FIRST YEAR	UNITS	
American Institutions 15	2	
Health Science		2
Diesel Engines 60A-60B; 80A-80B	4	4
Industrial Science 82		4
Orientation 51	1	
Engineering Drawing 1D	2	2
Eng. & Correspond. 51	2	
Funds. of Business 54	2	
Simple Accounting 65		2
Electives*	3	2
Physical Education	½	½

SECOND YEAR	UNITS	
Machine Shop 16A	2	
Welding 18A		2
Diesel Engines 60C-60D; 81	4	4
Machine Draft. Pract. 75	2	
Machine Drawing 6		3
Shop Mathematics 53	2	
Electives	6	7
Physical Education	½	½

*Preferred elective: Electricity 12AB.

MACHINE SHOP

FIRST YEAR	UNITS	
American Institutions 15	2	
Health Science		2
Engineering Drawing 1D	2	2
Shop Mathematics 53		3
Industrial Science 82	3	
Orientation 51	1	
Machine Shop 90A-90B	7	7
Electives	1	2
Physical Education	½	½

SECOND YEAR	UNITS	
Machine Draft. Pract. 75	2	
Machine Drawing 6		3
Welding 18A	2	
Foundry & Pattern Mkg. 15A		2
Eng. & Correspondence 51	3	
Fund. of Business 54	3	
Simple Accounting 65		3
Machine Shop 90C-90D	7	7
Physical Education	½	½

MILL AND CABINET WORK

FIRST YEAR	UNITS	
Health Science	2	
American Institutions 15		2
Mill and Cabinet 65A-65B	7	7
Arch. Draft. Pract. 76A-76B	2	2
Orientation 51	1	
Industrial Science 82	3	
Electives*	1	5
Physical Education	½	½

SECOND YEAR	UNITS	
Mill & Cabinet 65B	7	7
Shop Mathematics 53	3	
Eng. & Correspondence 51	3	
Funds. of Business 54		3
Simple Accounting 65	3	
Furn. & Fixture Design 78A-78B	2	2
Electives*		3
Physical Education	½	½

*Preferred elective: Building Construction 77AB.

PRINTING

FIRST YEAR	UNITS	
American Institutions	2	
Health		2
Printing 20A-20B	3	3
Journalism 12A-12B	3	3
Commercial Design 20A-20B	2	2
Electives*	6	6
Physical Education	½	½

SECOND YEAR	UNITS	
Printing 20C-20D	3	3
Commercial Design 20C-20D	2	2
English 60A-60B	3	3
Journalism 13A-13B	2	2
Electives*	6	6
Physical Education	½	½

*Preferred electives: Retail Problems 60A, Advertising 61B, English 1AB, Economics 1AB, Investments 58, Psychology 2.

ORNAMENTAL IRON AND WELDING

FIRST YEAR	UNITS	
American Institutions 15	2	
Health Science		2
Engineering Drawing 1D or Machine Draft. Pract. 75	2	2
Shop Mathematics 53	3	
Industrial Science 82		4
Orientation 51	1	
Ornamental Iron and Welding 91A-91B	7	7
Electives	1	1
Physical Education	½	½

SECOND YEAR	UNITS	
Machine Shop 16A-16B	2	2
Pattern Making & Foundry 15A	2	
Machine Draft. Pract. 75 or Ornam'tal Iron Layout 63		2
English & Correspond. 51		3
Funds. of Business 54		3
Simple Accounting 65	3	
Ornamental Iron and Welding 91C-91D	7	7
Electives	2	
Physical Education	½	½

You will note that there are certain common requirements, such as health science, physical education, American political institutions, and English. Other requirements are more closely related to the major or core.

In the aeronautics curriculum the related requirements constitute most of the first year's work. The second year's work is nearly all done in the laboratory. Such an arrangement has seemed advantageous for training students for sustained effort over a period equal to the working day in a factory. For the same reason provision is made for students to spend seven and one-half hours per day, two days every week, in the machine shop or laboratory. In Diesel engines, mill and cabinet work, and ornamental iron work, five half days are given to continuous work in shop and the remaining time to related courses.

The work done in these shops is as practical as it can be made. In the print shop two weekly papers are printed, one for the high school and one for the college. School magazines are printed there. This shop handles nearly all the regular school printing. Jobs are given to commercial printers only when the school shop is too crowded to handle them. In the mill and cabinet classes such projects as constructing chairs, drawing tables, teachers' desks, and other furniture are undertaken. These jobs must be handled in their entirety, from drawing plans and estimating costs to figuring the cost of the finished product. For the machine shop a manufacturer of oil industries machines and tools furnishes rough castings and

specification for finished work. In the Diesel engines classes actual use and repair of many makes and styles of engines furnish practical experience.

Approximately forty per cent of the registration of the Fullerton Junior College is in the commerce department. Here, as in the shops, the work, done under laboratory conditions, is a concentrated field experience. The following curriculum, one of seven offered, is typical of requirements in this department.

SECRETARIAL

FIRST YEAR	UNITS		SECOND YEAR	UNITS	
Business English 50A	3		American Institutions	2	
Business Correspond. 50B		3	Health		2
Consumer's Problems 6	2		Sec. Training 62	2	2
Sec. Accounting 52-53	3	3	Public Speaking 1A-1B	3	3
Stenography 56-57	5	5	Stenography 58	3	
Typing 51-52	3	3	Typing 53 or 53A	1 or 3	
Transcription 57A		2	Directed Bus. Training 63		2
Physical Education	½	½	Mach. Calculation 70A-70B	2 to 6	
			Geography 62A-62B	3	3
			Electives*		
			Physical Education	½	½

*Electives to bring total to 16½ units a semester.

In meeting the requirements of this curriculum the student, in addition to mastering the skill subjects and doing satisfactory work in the academic type of subjects included, has to meet and master conditions in two business laboratories. In secretarial training she must serve as secretary to some faculty member or businessman, taking dictation and transcribing notes. She must learn to cut stencils and to operate a variety of duplicators and mimeograph machines. She must learn the care necessary to the keeping of confidences as the examination questions of the school are duplicated here. During the year 1937-38 this laboratory ran off over 460,000 pages of copy. In directed business training she is instructed in practical bookkeeping and in the operation of several makes of bookkeeping, posting, and calculating machines. She assists in the operations of a functioning bank. Two hundred twenty-five thousands of actual dollars crossed its counters last year.

A feature of the services of the commerce department is the after-completion assistance rendered to each student. Through careful classwork, a practical type of training, unwillingness to recommend a student unless she is certain to succeed in the specific job, and careful follow-up to assist employer and employee in adjusting differences, the school has earned a reputation that now makes placement comparatively easy. The presence, in the vicinity, of several concerns that number secretarial or clerical help by the hundreds or thousands makes it unnecessary for the man in charge of placement to contact as many firms or personnel directors

as he would otherwise have to meet. His task then becomes one of developing cordial relations with a few large firms and zealously maintaining them by quality of service. He secures calls from many smaller concerns, it is true, but these calls come because of a name for good service rather than from solicitation.

Certain other features of training in the commerce department are worthy of mention. One day each quarter is used to emphasize business dress. On this day students in the department are expected to dress as they would in seeking or holding a job. Mary may have her lips or nails too highly colored. John may not wear a tie and his clothes may need pressing. Each becomes a walking advertisement of his or her shortcomings and the day will not pass without teachers taking note of it. The faculty through individual contacts and group meetings with business executives and personnel directors learn what are the most modern business practices and demands. All student organization funds are handled through the school bank. Student secretaries, bookkeepers, clerks, and telephone operators are furnished to faculty and school. So for the shops and for students in commerce the school and community become a laboratory and training school in which the most practical of experiences may be obtained.

Following the prepared addresses on: The Junior College Serving Its Sectional Needs, the Chairman, McClellan G. Jones, Principal of Union High School, Huntington Beach, California, called for general discussion from the floor.

DISCUSSION

MISS BROSSARD (St. Louis Teachers' College): We have just opened our college to a junior college so we are more than feeling our way, we are really groping.

We would like to know—do you have in your college special teachers for guidance, to give guidance to students—teachers assigned the particular job?

MR. BYRON S. HOLLINSHEAD (Scranton-Keystone Junior College, La-Plume, Pa.): All our guidance is given by the Chairmen of the Divisions. For instance the Chairman of the Engineering Courses gives the guidance to the Engineering students, and so on; we do not allow all teachers to offer guidance, we only allow about six out of the entire faculty. Those six are the ones who do it for each of their respective curricular groups.

MISS BROSSARD: We have a problem. Our students in the Junior College are really obliged to take academic courses for the most part; would

you recommend from your experience that we have one teacher guide these teachers in their vocations or professions?

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: I don't think it ought to be one. It seems to me that all teachers must be aware, but if you label any one a guidance officer—that was our experience—you immediately create a feeling of suspicion on the part of the students toward that particular person. Students have confidence in one or another instructor for no particular reason; if that instructor can also be their guidance officer he can get a number of things across to them that a person labeled a guidance officer cannot.

MISS BROSSARD: Do you think the respective deans of women or deans of men could not take care of that?

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: I think they should be the head of it, but ought not to do it all.

MISS BROSSARD: How can we get the Pennsylvania Study?

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: The study to which I referred is published by the Public Affairs Committee. I think they are at 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, 10 cents a copy; 25 copies for two dollars; it is a Carnegie Foundation study, and this is a study of the study.

MR. JOHN NAPIER (Auburn, California): I would like to direct a question to the first speaker; it really is a point that some of us are particularly interested in and that is, I understood him to say that you were no longer giving diplomas to those people who leave the twelfth grade. I would like to say for clarification and perhaps ask one or two questions to bring out the point, does he mean that he has abandoned all traditional graduation exercises for people graduating, who finish the lower division of the four-year junior college?

Secondly: does he give them any types of certificates or records at that time publicly or otherwise, to indicate if they are transferring to four-year institutions, that they have finished the traditional high school course of study? I would like to have a little more light.

MR. MCCASKILL (Principal of Senior High School and Junior College, Meridian, Mississippi): Mr. Napier, I am sorry I did not make myself clear on that point. I did not say that we had eliminated the traditional high school graduation. I did say that one of the means through which we hoped to develop unity in the new upper division was eventually through that elimination of traditional graduation.

We haven't made a beginning toward that right now, and that is probably going to be one of the things that will take the longest to accomplish.

MR. LOUIS E. PLUMMER (Superintendent of Fullerton Union High School and Junior College, Fullerton, California): May I comment on the question that was just raised? We have with us this afternoon, Dr. Zook, who, years ago, was Director of Higher Education of the United States and I remember in a Memphis meeting, as long ago as 1922 Dr. Zook's making the statement that no two-year institution could survive. He has been an advocate for all these years of the six-four-four development, I believe, and Dr. Zook, we will have to admit that many junior colleges have survived, but there is the problem of graduation that faces the reorganization into the six-four-four plan, that is very difficult. Dr. Zook might be interested in commenting on this, Mr. Chairman.

CHAIRMAN JONES: We shall be delighted if he will, and we are delighted to have him with us.

DR. ZOOK: Well, Mr. Chairman, I am certainly sorry that somebody's memory is as good as it is. I have forgotten that particular occasion, but I will have to admit that that has been my, shall I say, hope? Possibly it doesn't make so very much difference. We are after all at the beginning of a tremendous movement. I am afraid to look myself in the face and realize what has happened in this movement in the last twenty years because I have been definitely interested in it all of this time, a period where we have seen this tremendous development, and I will continue to say as I said in the very earliest meetings in those days, that I know of no movement in the field of education which has greater significance for the transformation of the whole field of education.

Well, we have seen that proven to a very considerable extent, and yet I think that we all have to admit that even now in somewhat a different sense we are only at the beginning of the tremendous possibilities that it has.

My own belief is that as soon as we do have junior colleges in all the cities and towns of twenty-five or thirty thousand, we will have more of a tendency than has occurred in days gone by, to bring about a close correlation between what we have always thought of as high school on the one hand and what we have thought of as the first two years of college on the other.

And yet I must say that I will have to admit that the great proportion of junior colleges that one sees in operation to-day are of these two-year units.

All that that really means is that fundamental changes in American education have to occur over very long periods of time, and I do not think that anybody needs to be terribly worried about that; I would be perfectly willing to admit that if two-year junior colleges as such can show a clear effectiveness, I will take all of it back that I had to say in days gone by. But

I am just as much convinced as ever of the fundamental soundness of that point of view, but I don't know whether I am going to worry about it; I don't expect to see it altogether realized in my day and generation.

I feel that we are really here discussing the two fundamental purposes that junior colleges exist for, and by-the-way, Mr. Chairman, I really would like to compliment you or somebody else, I don't know who, upon these three very very excellent presentations. As I compared them with what we had to stand for in our earlier days of realization of what the Junior College was for, I think there is a tremendous and marked improvement on the things that occurred in those earlier days.

Here we have had presented this afternoon by three men some very distinct impressions about what the vocational or pre-professional curricula of these junior colleges ought to be. Now that impresses me tremendously. Somebody has been doing some work; somebody has been doing some thinking here that is quite worth while.

I mention it in part because as I see the individuals who are concerned with American educational policy, one still encounters the criticism quite generally: Oh yes, the junior colleges are here all right enough, but they do not at all realize their responsibilities in this vocational or if you will, semi-professional field.

And yet it seems to me that we are gradually identifying that area so clearly that in the fairly early future it will not be possible for anyone to make that criticism intelligently; at any rate relative to what we find in the junior college?

By-the-way, I would like to parenthetically inquire, you can answer this after I get through, what progress has been made in California concerning the use of vocational funds for the support of these curricula in the junior college?

Now the other thing that I am equally impressed with: we have got a wave at the present time of emphasis upon general education, on the junior college level. Now personally I am just as grateful as can be for this awakening that is going on at the present time. I think those of us who have been interested in junior college work can truthfully say that from the very beginning we had in mind that the junior college could serve and would serve as the completion work of the high school in this area of general education, and perhaps we can say: congratulations, to these peope who during the last three or four years have found out that there is a problem of general education on the junior college level, and are now willing to help advance the cause. But it is entirely possible that we have a great deal to learn about what this type of general education ought to be on the junior college level, and may I just briefly allude to the fact that one of the enterprises in which I am taking a great deal of in-

terest to-day, that the Council has just gotten under way is a coöperative study of the problem of general education on the junior college level.

I succeeded without much difficulty, I am happy to say, in convincing the general education board that we ought to have a fairly considerable sum of money with which to go forward on this coöperative study and now twenty-two institutions, beginning as I remember it with Allegheny College on the East and ending with Mills College on the extreme West, have banded together in this coöperative study which in a way is being set up somewhat upon the basis of the eight-year study of the Progressive Education Association.

Among the twenty-two institutions are three junior colleges, one of them the Pasadena Junior College which I am sure you will recognize as being a junior college which is selected because it is of this four-year character that has been described here; the second the Little Rock Junior College in Little Rock, Arkansas, and the third, the Stevens Junior College at Columbia, Missouri.

Then there are two of the so-called separate land grant colleges, the one in Iowa and the one in Michigan.

Now before we have concluded this study, I feel sure that we will have a far better community of feeling about what general education on the junior college level should be than we do at the present time, and I am hopeful enough even to feel that a good traditional liberal arts college will come to realize what that ought to be as well as a good junior college realizes what it ought to be.

Some of you may think that is a long way for a good traditional liberal arts college to go [laughter] and I suspect it is, and on the other hand it may be thoroughly worth while for Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts to realize that the first two years of their four-year curricula are largely in the field of general education and should be very different from the general education work that may be found in some junior college located not very far away, so I am very hopeful that out of this study there may be something quite worth while.

Well, I haven't any judgment at all, Mr. Chairman, when I get on my feet in talking about junior colleges, and I hope you will forgive me for talking such a long while. [Applause]

CHAIRMAN JONES: Thank you, Dr. Zook. This has been a real contribution, and I know the junior college men are going to be very glad to hear of this coöperative study.

Would you answer the one question regarding the use of vocational funds at the present time, Mr. Plummer?

MR. PLUMMER: The conditions under which vocational funds may be used are rather severe. It calls for a special type of certification. A teacher who is certificated to teach technical trades courses for instance, where these funds may be used, must have had from five to ten years practical experience in addition to his training academically or professionally.

The courses of the curricula that I have outlined in the paper you were furnished a little while ago—we are getting federal support for the course in Diesel engines, machine shop, mill and cabinet work, and ornamental iron work, and welding.

I cannot speak for the college of California as a whole, many of them are doing more or less work for which they are getting federal support. The allocation of funds to California I feel is very generous and they are being used quite largely.

DR. ZOOK: I will confess, Mr. Plummer, that my main idea in asking the question was to have all of the group realize that California had taken the step of designating by law, junior college education as an aspect of secondary education, hence it is possible in California to use these vocational funds in junior colleges whereas in no other state so far as I know which has not taken that step legally, is it possible to use the vocational fund.

Personally I am looking ahead another hundred years when the other forty-seven states in the Union will by law designate junior college education as secondary education and thus be able to use the funds that are designated for vocational education.

MR. PLUMMER: Wherever fifteen hours of time per week is used by students in courses that are definitely and closely related to the core, the federal government furnishes seven hundred and fifty dollars toward that teacher's salary; where twenty hours are used in close connection with the core curriculum the allowance toward the teacher's salary by the federal government is one thousand dollars.

MR. JOHN CRAIG (Muskegon, Michigan): We have a junior college organized ten or twelve years ago. I want to ask if in these cities that are organized under the six-four-four plan, if that organization was brought about when the junior college was first organized, whether it originated in your town in a six-four-four plan. In my town we are organized on the six-three-three-two plan, but a number of us are sold on this six-four-four plan. But of course the junior college now has traditions, as the senior high school has many traditions, and I am wondering if there are any here who have been organized on the six-three-three-two plan and are now on the six-four-four plan.

MR. PLUMMER: Mr. Chairman, I think most colleges now operate on the six-four-four plan, most schools systems operating on the six-four-

four plan have developed that out of an earlier eight-four-two, or six-six-three, or six-three-three-two plan.

Mr. McCaskill has given us an example of the college organized directly on the basis of the six-four-four but in California where we have probably half a dozen systems operating on the six-four-four plan, they all developed out of other plans of organization.

MR. BAUGHER (Hershey, Pennsylvania): I would like to ask the gentlemen who operate under the six-four-four plan what percentage of the students who finish the twelfth grade continue to return for the thirteenth grade work?

MR. MCCASKILL: In my system, of course we are young, we have only two classes thus far; last year we had approximately forty per cent of the high-school graduates who remained for junior college.

MR. J. S. LANDEFER (Mississippi): I would like to state that I was in a junior college agricultural high school. We are one of those tax-supported in Mississippi; we only have one city, that is in Meridian, Mr. McCaskill told us about so well this afternoon.

MR. E. R. HENRY (Ventura, California): We have the six-four-four plan for eight years and in reply to the question which has just been asked, we have more than eighty per cent of our students who graduate from the twelfth grade who transfer directly to the thirteenth grade.

I am under the impression, if I remember Dr. Harbison's statement in the matter is that they have a larger percentage than that in Pasadena.

MR. C. F. BINGHAM (Beaumont, Texas): I guess maybe Texas is backward, because we have twenty-one public junior colleges in Texas, and I think without any exceptions all of them started as a part of the high school, administered by the principal, and now nineteen out of the twenty-one are administered by separate principals or dean, a separate faculty, and a separate student body attends, and almost all have a separate setup entirely, although maybe under the same superintendent and board of education, so Texas in the development of junior college may not be in the trend that most of them are going.

I was just interested in knowing what the present trend seems to be. The trend in four-year institutions in Texas is going backward.

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: I just wanted to say that I had lunch this noon with Dr. Grizzell, the Secretary of the Middle States Association. One problem that nobody has mentioned about six-four-four plan is that there is no way of accrediting a four-year junior college as a unit, at least in the Middle States Association. Now I am on the Commission of the Middle States Association—Secondary School Commission—and we are having a

joint committee now to see whether we can work out a program for accrediting a four-year junior college as a unit, as it stands now it is very difficult in the Middle States at least to run a four-year program which has any basis; in Pennsylvania, for example, the State Department will not accredit a secondary school unless it is operating three years, so it cannot accredit a secondary school as part of a junior college; I think though that that difficulty will be solved very shortly and probably will work out so that four-year junior college can be accredited as a unit in itself.

MR. S. B. HAYTHORNE (Mississippi): The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools can accredit a four-year unit; they are credited as a Junior College, but they do have arrangements whereby a four-year unit can be accredited.

MRS. DAXON (Bluefield, West Virginia): I teach in a denominational school, a denominational junior college; we happen to get about fifty per cent of the graduates from the twin cities—I wonder if the gentlemen think there is any integration possible between the high schools and the junior colleges, or Dr. Zook probably would say we have no business existing.

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: You may be under the delusion that I operate a public junior college. Scranton-Keystone Junior College is a private institution. All I try to do is keep the deficit as small each year as possible.

We run a four-year institution; our last two preparatory years, however, are very small and the bulk of our work is in the two-year junior college. We deliberately cut ours to integrate ourselves with the public high schools and I think we have succeeded reasonably well. We cannot seem to build up the last two years very successfully. I judge a public institution could, but we are not. I think you have a legitimate reason for existence.

MRS. DAXON: We can build up the upper two years, but had to discontinue the first two years because we had so few in the preparatory department.

MR. MARTIN (Missouri): I woud like to ask Mr. Plummer: do you have more than one person to help with the employment, the placement end?

You described the person in commercial education; now do you have it for the other departments in the institution?

MR. PLUMMER: It is our feeling that the employment secretary, or the one who is in charge of employment should know the work very well; she should be acquainted with the preparation, she should be acquainted with the conditions a pupil has to meet, and should be a sort of doctor

when problems develop between the employer and employee, consequently we ask our heads of departments to be the employment agency through which these students work. We do not attempt to have one person take care of all employment for the school.

MR. SORENSON (Minneapolis): In the six-four-four plan do they charge tuition for the thirteenth and fourteenth year? Do they classify as a high school and do the colleges accept the credits as they did under the six-three-two plan?

MR. MCCASKILL: Speaking for my situation—yes, to both questions. We do have a tuition charge, even from those who live within our own school district, it is very small. The tuition itself is fifteen dollars a semester for a full course and certain other fees—the average cost in my junior college to those who live within the district is four dollars and a half a month for the nine months.

MR. HENRY (Ventura): I might answer for California, under the California School Law we are not permitted to charge tuition; I might say while I am on my feet, so far as all charges are concerned, we make no distinction at all in our own institution between the various graduates.

MISS BROSSARD: Fifteen dollars covers how much?

MR. MCCASKILL: One semester.

MR. E. F. FARNER (Parsons, Kansas): I would like to ask a little more about the Annual Career Forum; I think Mr. Hollinshead spoke of that. Tell me about what is done at that Forum.

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: This was purely an experiment with us three years ago, we started it and using these committees of which I spoke, we set aside one day, and declared that a holiday in the high schools. We had, I think, sixty speakers of sixty different professions or vocations, meeting through a whole class day, say at any particular hour there probably would be ten sections going on, talking about each profession, the requirements for it, the qualities that the student ought to exhibit and possess if he wanted to succeed in it; possibilities of placement; possibilities in our particular community. The speakers were instructed not to take more than fifteen minutes of the fifty minutes, and then we had our own student chairman start questioning, so that students could question back and forth. Then we had each year too some outstanding speaker who could pull the whole thing together, once in the afternoon for general meeting, and once in the evening for a banquet.

We have found that to be very useful, we think, to the community, and very useful to the faculty, students and lay people in general.

It also has awakened a considerable amount of interest in the laymen, in the program that we are presenting which we think is useful, too.

MR. FARNER: You have both high school and junior college students at the Forum?

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: Yes. Our problem has been to find the room for it; we are always too jambed.

Last year we put in one that we hadn't thought of before, called Careers in Marriage, and we finally had to move that to a room holding six hundred—they could not even get in there.

MR. STRESINGER (Texas): May I ask how you finance that program?

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: I judge I am one of the few private junior college people here—I have access to the pocketbooks of various individuals, not as much access as I would like, but I continually work on that. [Laughter] That is the only way that we finance a program of that kind—we charge tuition, of course; our students pay a high tuition, three hundred dollars for liberal arts courses, and three hundred and fifty dollars for courses which involve very much science, per year; that does not meet our running expenses but near enough so with the pockets I can touch we balance, somewhere near, at the end of the year.

CHAIRMAN JONES: I might state at Fullerton at least, Mr. Plummer has a Family Relations Course and you might speak a word regarding its popularity, and the work it is doing, Mr. Plummer, if you care to contribute just that.

MR. PLUMMER: Our Family Relations Course was started this last year. The head of our biology department was interested in developing a course of this kind and has been interested for years. He went to North Carolina at the call of Dr. Graves of the University of North Carolina for a conference on family Relations work; he came back very enthusiastic. He had already been given permission to offer such course upon it; application for admission to that course has been tremendous in the junior college. It is a popular course, it is meeting the approval not only of students but of parents and of the community.

We questioned that just a little bit because sometimes there is a feeling among the parents particularly, that the inhibitions in the home should be carried into the school, and this teacher has a feeling that after all there are problems in connection with family relations that will not be adequately handled elsewhere and are legitimate for a school development.

MR. HOLLINSHEAD: May I second that, Mr. Chairman?

We have an individual this year giving a series of lectures on the same subject, financed by an individual who is interested in that and it has been very successful.

CHAIRMAN JONES: I think you will find a real need for something of that sort as you have expressed here, and if you have among your faculty a man or a woman who commands complete confidence of your students, and is interested in this type of work, there is much help that can be gained from those who are already doing this work and you will find it of tremendous interest and value.

I might simply state this: a year ago when I was traveling east to the convention at Atlantic City, I was traveling with Dr. Moore, the Superintendent of the Los Angeles System. I said, "Dr. Moore, what is the most outstanding piece of work that you are doing in the Los Angeles System?"

He said, "I am afraid I will have to take you back to Framington High School," the high school of which he was formerly principal, and he said, "We had a woman there who started a family relations course. The demand was so great we started it as a year course; we couldn't begin to take in the numbers who wanted it; we reduced it to a one-semester course, still there were numbers who could not get in." He said, "At the present time that woman is taking four groups of students for one quarter of a year each, and is so inspiring them in this work that they are carrying on under her general directions and reading the books and having discussion groups necessary so that the work is reaching out to the larger number."

Now, as I told you at the beginning our four o'clock has arrived. I am greatly indebted to these men who have come so ably prepared to speak to you and I greatly appreciate the contributions and questions from the audience.

National Honor Society

MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY

Cleveland, Ohio

February 25, 1939

The National Council met in Hotel Cleveland. Present: Members Allen, Brooks, Elicker, MacQuarrie, McDaniel, and Church; absent members: Comstock, Parker, Peters, and Spencer.

The terms of members Elicker, MacQuarrie and McDaniel expire at this convention. The following ballot was prepared:

BALLOT

(Vote for three)

- ☐ Samuel S. Dickey, Principal of Harding Junior High School, Lakewood, Ohio.
- ☐ Paul E. Elicker, Principal of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts.
- ☐ A. E. MacQuarrie, Principal of Washburn High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- ☐ Martin M. Mansperger, Principal of Junior-Senior High School, Freeport, California.
- ☐ M. R. McDaniel, Superintendent Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois.
- ☐ Paul Rehmus, Principal Senior High School, Grosse Point, Michigan.

It was suggested that Honor Societies be encouraged to invite delegations from neighboring non-chapter schools to attend induction exercises.

On motion of members MacQuarrie and Allen (second) the Secretary was authorized to draw an amendment to the constitution setting up a classification of chapter members to be known as working members.

It was moved by members MacQuarrie and Elicker (second) that loans have the additional financial security by having a co-signer on the notes by a person of financial standing in the loanee's community.

Adjournment was moved by member Brooks.

Tuesday, February 26, Meeting

The National Council met in Hotel Cleveland at 5:00 P. M. Present: Members Allen, Elicker, MacQuarrie, McDaniel, and Church; absent: Members Brooks, Comstock, Parker, Peters, and Spencer.

On motion of Members Elicker and Allen (second) the motion requiring the loanee to obtain a co-signer of financial standing in the community was rescinded.

Members MacQuarrie and Allen (second) moved that ten thousand dollars ($10,000.00) be the upward limit of total loans for the ensuing year. Carried.

On motion of Members Allen and MacQuarrie (second) an endorser be required for loans of more than two hundred dollars ($200.00).

Moved by Members Elicker and Allen (second) that the members of the National Council constitute themselves a committee to ascertain opinion on an approved and standardized regalia for initiates. Carried.

The result of the balloting showed the following elected for a term of three years:

S. S. Dickey, Principal, Harding Junior High School, Lakewood, Ohio.

Paul E. Elicker, Principal, Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts.

M. R. McDaniel, Superintendent, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois.

CONSTITUTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Article I—Name

The name of this organization shall be the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

Article II—Aim

The aim of this department shall be the advancement of secondary education by providing a clearing house of discussion bearing upon the problems of administration and supervision, by encouraging research, by upholding acceptable standards, by fostering professional ideals, and by formulating a working philosophy of secondary education.

Article III—Membership

Section 1—The membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of two classes: active and associate.

Section 2—All individuals shall be eligible to active membership who are members of the National Education Association and who are engaged in administrating supervision, and teaching secondary education, upon payment of the annual fee of $2.00 to the executive secretary.

Section 3—Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to active membership in the Department of Secondary-School Prinicipals, by the payment of the annual fee of $1.00.

Section 4—All other persons interested in secondary education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible to associate membership upon payment of the annual fee of $2.00 to the executive secretary.

Section 5—Only active members shall have the privilege of voting or holding office.

Section 6.—All members, both active and associate, shall receive the publications of the Department.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1—The elective officers of the Department shall be a president, a first vice president, and a second vice president.

SECTION 2—The president and the vice president shall hold office for one year.

SECTION 3—The executive committee shall consist of the officers, the retiring president, and three other members each elected for a term of three years. At the first election, one member shall be elected for only one year and one other for two years. The executive committee shall be representative of junior high schools, the several types of senior high schools, and junior colleges.

SECTION 4—The executive secretary shall be selected by the executive committee; his duties and compensation shall be determined by the executive committee.

ARTICLE V

SECTION 1—The president shall, sixty days in advance of the annual meeting, ask each of the state associations of the Department of Secondary-School Principals to name a representative who shall then be appointed by the president as a member of the nominating committee.

SECTION 2—Eighteen members of the nominating committee shall constitute a quorum with not fewer than three from each of the following regional associations of colleges and Secondary Schools: New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schols, the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, and the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Any lack in the representation herein provided shall be filled by nomination from the floor.

SECTION 3—The nominating committee so constituted shall meet following its selection and after electing a chairman, shall prepare a list of candidates for the several offices, to be submitted to the Department at its final business meeting.

ARTICLE VI—FINANCE

The president shall appoint, subject to the approval of the executive committee, two members who shall, with the executive secretary, consti-

tute a board of finance to act in the capacity of trustees, to have custody of the funds of the Department, to have same properly audited, and to submit annually a report to the Department. Bills shall be paid by the executive secretary upon the authorization of the president.

ARTICLE VII—MEETINGS

SECTION 1—The Department of Secondary-School Principals shall hold two meetings yearly. The regular annual meeting shall be held at the time and place of the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, unless arranged for otherwise by the executive committee of the Department.

SECTION 2—The second meeting of the Department shall be held at the time and place of the annual summer meeting of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE VIII—AMENDMENTS

The Constitution may be amended by a two-thirds majority vote of those present and voting at the annual mid-winter meetings. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the preceding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Department thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the executive committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Department.

ARTICLE IX

Roberts' Rules of Order shall govern in all meetings of the Department.